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T H E

LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL

M A G A Z I N E,

AND

B R I T I S H   R E V I E W,

For SEPTEMBER, 1791.

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LIFE OF MARIVEAUX.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

PETER Carlet De Mariveaux, born at Paris in the year 1668, was the son of a gentleman who had been director of Money at Riom, in Auvergne, and who was descended from an ancient family in Normandy. Having received a good education, he gave early proofs of a fine genius; but being flattered by the applauses of his friends, who, considering his youth, bestowed the highest encomiums on his earliest performances, he quitted study for writing, by which means his taste became in some measure vitiated, and gave rise to those blemishes that appear throughout all his works. The talents of young people ought without doubt to be encouraged; but if they are called forth into action too soon, childish conceits will, in their works, be substituted for wit; affectation for elegance of style; false ornaments for correctness and simplicity; and they will acquire a habit which no exertion afterwards will be able entirely to correct. This appears to have been the case with Mariveaux. His pro-

ductions, though they will always be read with pleasure, notwithstanding the great number of faults to be found in them, and though they display great knowledge of the heart, and a lively imagination, are deficient in point of style and taste; which has given occasion to several writers to level their shafts of criticism against him. Mr. Mariveaux began his career as a writer, by a work called *Romantic Follies*, which is better known by the title of *The Modern Don Quixotte*. To attempt to tread in the steps of Cervantes was certainly a bold undertaking in a young author, but it was not, however, unattended with success. There is, undoubtedly, a very great difference between this work and the history of Don Quixotte, which is a masterpiece in that species of writing; yet the reader will find in it a great deal of fire, liveliness and imagination, as well as a series of pleasing adventures, which render it highly agreeable and entertaining. The author adheres very closely to his model. Phari-

mond is his hero, as Don Quixotte is that of Cervantes; and Clito is his Sancho Pancha. Like Don Quixotte, Pharsamond, filled with extravagant ideas acquired from books of chivalry, goes about in quest of strange adventures, in which Clito, the new Sancho, takes his share; but his character is far from being so interesting as that of the squire who attended the admirable knight of La Mancha.

*The Life of Mariamne*, another romance of this author, but much superior to the former, was received also by the public in a very favourable manner. The heroine of this tale interests very much, on account of the early period at which her adventures commence, and which she relates herself to one of her friends. When only two years of age, the coach that goes to Bourdeaux, and in which she was a passenger, happened to be attacked on the road by robbers; and of all the people who were in it, she alone and a canon had the good fortune to escape the fury of the assassins, the rest being sacrificed without mercy. Mariamne was received and protected by the curate of the village and his sister. The latter being obliged to go to Paris, in order to receive a legacy, Mariamne accompanied her thither, and, when about fifteen, had the misfortune of losing her kind benefactress. Becoming acquainted accidentally with an elderly gentleman, who was induced to patronize her from other motives than those of pity, he placed her under the care of a sempstress, where he loaded her with a profusion of presents; but all the return she made for this kindness, was a grateful acknowledgement of his friendship. Dressed out in the fine clothes which her admirer had given her, she went one day to church. Here she became enamoured of a young man of quality, named Valville, who experienced the same sensations for her. This mutual passion, after a thousand crosses, and various interruptions, was at length crowned with success, and Mariamne obtained the object of her affections as a husband. Hitherto this poor

orphan had been ignorant of her family, but she now discovers that she is the grand-daughter of a Scotch nobleman, and that her father and mother had been killed by the robbers who attacked the Bourdeaux coach.

Such are the outlines of this interesting romance, which besides a deficiency in point of style, is faulty in other respects. Mariamne appears to make too great pretensions to philosophy, and is continually interrupting the thread of the narration by digressions abounding with maxims. Morality is no doubt necessary, and can alone render a work of this kind valuable, but an author will not excite a love of virtue so much by precepts, as by exhibiting virtuous characters. Madame Riccoboni, well known by her *History of Miss Jenny*, and her *Letters of Lady Catelby*, has attempted to continue the life of Mariamne, and indeed she has so well succeeded, that the copy is almost equal to the original. *The Fortunate Country Maid* gained no less applause to Marivaux than the romance of Mariamne; but if it exhibits the same beauties, it abounds also with the like faults. It is rather singular that the author, who laid aside Mariamne in order to undertake it, should have left it unfinished. He wrote only the five first parts, and it may be easily seen, that the three last are not by the same pen. Some have pretended that he did not finish this work, because, as his hero was about to be introduced into high life, he was afraid of the applications that might be made of what he should write, and that he preferred quietness to the glory of bringing it to a conclusion; but his natural inconstancy, which did not permit him to fix his attention long upon the same object, was the real cause of this omission.

*The Coquettish Apprentice* and the *Carriage Bemired* are two small romances which are nothing inferior to his other productions. The last is the account of an imaginary journey written with much humour and a considerable deal of pleasantry. The author, as happy as fertile in characters, traces

out here those of his travellers, among whom, there was a middle aged lady, tolerably handsome, and tender to excess; a lively girl of fifteen; a cheerful old gentleman, and a pretended wit. The character of each of these personages is perfectly preserved throughout, but nothing is more agreeable and natural than the description of the bemired carriage. "The conversation upon love," says the author, "became exceedingly warm; when, through the imprudence of the drivers, who were behind us, emptying a brown jug of its contents, our horses, without guides, entered a road covered with thick mud, in which the unfortunate animals sunk, as well as the wheels of the heavy carriage. When the drivers observed the horses stop, they approached them with a *jee-bo!* smacking their whips. The horses upon this began to plunge and kick, but they only sunk deeper. The drivers, exhausted and hoarse with crying, whipped away like car-men; their efforts, however, were of no avail. The horses pant and wheeze, our Phaetons swear, yet could not advance a single inch. We got out of the carriage, the drivers redouble their blows and oaths; but the Bastille was not firmer on its foundations than our wheels in the fatal mud."

Besides the above romances, *The Effluvia of Sympathy*, an indifferent work, and *The History of Mademoiselle Gaton and Mr. Le Gris*, related to *Mademoiselle Theresa*, her friend, by *Mademoiselle Gaton herself*, are also ascribed to Mariveaux. Whether he was the author of these works does not fully appear, but we have every reason to suppose that he had some share in the latter, since it was found among his papers, written by his own hand, and is entirely in his manner. After exercising his talents in romance writing, Mariveaux undertook to give the public a series of observations on various subjects, which were published periodically in sheets, under the title of *The French Spectator*. This work, writ-

ten after the plan of the *Spectator*, by Addison, is far inferior in merit; but it nevertheless found a number of readers, and acquired considerable reputation to its author.

Mariveaux wrote also a great variety of theatrical pieces, some of which were well received. There are several of them, however, which are considered as very indifferent. On account of his writings, he obtained a place in the French Academy, by the unanimous suffrages of all the members, with whom he lived in the strictest friendship till the period of his death, which happened in the year 1763, when he had attained to the age of seventy-four.

When about the age of eighteen, he fell in love with a young lady of rank, who, to the most engaging beauty, added the merit of seeming to be ignorant of her charms. This apparent modesty tended above all to enflame the heart of our young author; but what was his astonishment, when he surprised her one day admiring her figure before a mirror, where she was exercising herself in the art of counterfeiting nature! The discovery of this refined coquetry destroyed in an instant all the passion that he entertained for her, and made him put on a resolution never to enter into the bonds of matrimony. Vows, however, can make but a feeble resistance against the well directed shafts of beauty. Having seen a *Mademoiselle Martin*, he was so struck with her attractions that he married her in 1721, and lived with her in the greatest harmony till 1723, when he had the misfortune to be deprived of her by the hand of death. This loss was the cause of great affliction to him during the remainder of his life. But religion, for which he always entertained the greatest veneration, served in some measure to comfort him under his distress.

In the commerce of life Mariveaux appeared just the same as in his writings. Being naturally of a mild disposition, though a man of great warmth and sensibility, he possessed every

every quality that can render society easy and agreeable. To scrupulous probity, and a noble disinterestedness, he united the most amiable candour, great benevolence, unaffected modesty, and, above all, an ardent desire to avoid every thing that might offend or displease. "I love," said he, "too much my own repose to disturb that of others." He seldom entered into dispute; but when he did, he became peevish, and sometimes carried his passion too far. A strain of philosophy prevailed in his conversation, as in his comedies and romances, which, under the veil of wit and sentiment, had always an useful and a moral tendency. "I wish," said he, "to render men more just and more humane. This is the only object I have in view." His indifference with regard to riches and honour, was equal to his love of mankind. He never solicited any favours from the great, nor would he ever be convinced that his talents deserved them. He did not, however, reject the favours of fortune, when they were offered by esteem and friendship, or by disinterested protectors of the arts and letters. Had he felt less for the misfortunes of others, and been less ready to relieve them, he might have soon rendered his situation easy and comfortable; but he has been often known to deprive himself even of the necessities of life, in order to procure the liberty, or administer to the wants of people with whom he was scarcely acquainted, and who were either persecuted by merciless creditors, or through indigence reduced to the utmost despair. He was as anxious in enjoining secrecy to those whom he

obliged, as he was to conceal from his intimate friends his domestic unhappiness, and his own private wants. These sentiments of feeling for the poor and the distressed, were derived from the noblest of all sources, religion. Mariveaux had examined the foundations upon which it is built; he found them consonant with reason, and therefore practised its precepts, especially in the latter part of his life.

Mariveaux's works are, I. *His Theatrical Pieces*, collected in five volumes, 12mo. the most celebrated of which are, *The Surprise of Love*, the *Legacy*; and *Prejudice overcome*. II. *Thoues Travestie*, 2 vol. 12mo. a production which does very little honour to the taste of its author. III. *The French Spectator*, 2 vol. 12mo, written in an affected style, but abounding with a number of just and fine thoughts. IV. *The Indigent Philosopher*, 2 vol. 12mo. humorous and philosophical. V. *The Life of Mariamne*, 4 vol. 12mo. one of the best romances in the French language, in respect to interest, situations, natural painting, and delicacy of sentiment. There are some tender scenes in it, which may make too strong an impression on young hearts. The latter part of this romance is written by another author, as before-mentioned. VI. *The Fortunate Country Maid*, 3 vol. 12mo. If there be more liveliness and spirit in this romance than in that of Mariamne, it is, however, deficient in sentiment and reflections, and contains some things of a dangerous tendency. VII. *Pharjament*, 2 vol. This romance, which appeared afterwards under the title of *The New Don Quixotte*, is much inferior to the preceding.

#### METHOD OF SCALPING PRACTISED BY THE NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS, WITH SOME ANECDOTES OF THESE PEOPLE.

EXTRACTED FROM LONG'S TRAVELS.

**W**HEN an Indian strikes a person on the temple with a tomahawk, the victim instantly drops;

he then seizes his hair with one hand, twisting it very tight together, to separate the skin from the head, and placing

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placing his knee on the breast, with the other he draws the scalping-knife from the sheath, and cuts the skin round the forehead, pulling it off with his teeth. As he is very dextrous, the operation is generally performed in two minutes. The scalp is then extended on three hoops, dried in the sun, and rubbed over with vermilion. Some of the Indians, in time of war, when scalps are well paid for, divide one into five or six parts, and carry them to the nearest post, in hopes of recovering a reward proportionate to the number.

When the scalp is taken from the head of one of their people, they frequently make the dead body of advantage to them, by dressing it up, and painting it with vermilion; they then place it against a tree, with weapons in its hand, to induce the Indians to suppose it an enemy on the watch; and round the body they set spears in the ground so as scarcely to be discernible. The Indians, on seeing the person against the tree, and anxious to make him a prisoner, in the eagerness of running fall on the points of the spears, and being disabled from proceeding, are easily made prisoners. The following anecdote will sufficiently shew the dexterity of these people in this horrid art.

A Mohawk, of the name of Scunjonka, or the Elk, and a Chippeway Indian, of the name of Cark Cark, or the Crow, having met at a council of war, near Crown Point, in the year 1757, were extolling their own merits, and boasting of their superiority in taking scalps. The Mohawk contended that he could take a larger scalp than the Chippeway warrior, who was very highly offended, and desired that the experiment might be made. They parted, each pursuing a different route, after having first agreed to meet at a certain place on a particular day, when a council was to be held. At the time appointed they returned, and appeared at the council. The Mohawk laid down his scalp, which was the skin of the head and neck of a man, stuffed with fine

moss, and sewed up with deer's sinews, and the eyes fastened in. The chiefs expressed their approbation, and pronounced him to be a great and brave warrior. The Chippeway then rose, and looking earnestly at the Mohawk, desired the interpreter to tell him that it was an old woman's scalp, which is considered as a term of great reproach, and called to one of his sons to bring forward his scalp; when instantly he exhibited to their view the complete skin of a man stuffed with down-feathers, and sewed very close with deer's sinews. The chiefs loaded him with praise, and unanimously acknowledged his superiority. The Mohawk warrior, fired with resentment, withdrew from the council meditating revenge; and, as soon as he saw the Chippeway come forth, he followed him, and, watching a convenient opportunity, dispatched him with his tomahawk, rejoicing that he had, even in this dastardly manner, got rid of a victorious rival.

The Indians possess strong natural abilities, and are even capable of receiving improvement from literary pursuits. An old American savage, being at an inn at New York, met with a gentleman who gave him some liquor, and, being rather lively, he began to boast that he could read and write English. The gentleman, willing to indulge him in displaying his knowledge, begged leave to propose a question, to which the old man consented. He was then asked who was the first circumcised. The Indian immediately replied father Abraham: and directly asked the gentleman who was the first Quaker. He said it was very uncertain, as that people differed in their sentiments exceedingly. The Indian, perceiving the gentleman unable to resolve the question, put his fingers into his mouth, to express his surprise, and looking stedfastly, told him Mordecai was the first Quaker, for he would not pull off his hat to Haman.

It affords a melancholy subject for reflection to find that those Indians who have been accustomed to the society

society of the English traders, and even preachers, are very different in their manners, sentiments and practices, from those who have never had any intercourse with the Europeans. The alteration is manifestly for the worse. They have become more degenerate, and added to the turbulence of passions unbridled by reason, the vices of lying and swearing, which, Mr. Long says, they have unfortunately learned from us. The testimony of Mr. Sergeant, a gentleman of New-England, supports this assertion.

In a journey to the Shawanese Indians, allies and dependants of the six nations, and some other neighbouring tribes, Mr. Sergeant offered to instruct them in the Christian religion; this, however, they rejected with the utmost disdain. They even reproached Christianity; told him that the traders would "lie, cheat and debauch their young women, and even their wives," when their husbands were from "home;" and added, that the Senecas had given them their country to live in, but had expressly charged them never to receive Christianity from the English.

The following is a still further proof. Governor Hunter, by order of Queen Anne, presented the Indians with clothes and other things, of which they were extremely fond; and addressing them at a council, which was held at Albany, told them that their good mother, the Queen, had not only generously provided them with fine clothes for their bodies, but likewise intended to adorn their souls, by the preaching of the gospel, and that some ministers should be sent to instruct them. When the governor had finished his speech, the oldest chief rose up and said, that in the name of all the Indians he thanked their good mother, the Queen, for the fine clothes she had sent them; but that in regard to the ministers, they had already some of them, who, instead of preaching the gospel to them, taught them to drink to excess, to cheat, and quarrel among themselves, and intreated the governor to take from them the preachers, and

a number of Europeans who came among them; for before their arrival the Indians were honest, sober and innocent people; but now most of them were rogues; that they formerly had the fear of God; but that now they hardly believed his existence.

The following instance of bravery and generosity occurred at Michillimackinac. An Indian boy about fifteen years of age was standing at some distance from the fort, when a savage fired his gun, and accidentally killed an Englishman. As he was advancing he discovered the boy leaning against a tree, and not being of the same nation he formed the resolution of taking him prisoner: having no suspicion of the boy's intention, he went up to him and took him by the arm; the boy very artfully drew back, and shot the Indian through the chin. This so incensed him, that he was raising his hand to tomahawk him, when another Indian instantly coming up, asked his companion who had wounded him. He replied the boy, adding that he would immediately take his scalp. The other prevented his bloody purpose, and told him, he would protect the lad, for he was too brave to die. He carried him to the fort, where he was purchased by the commanding officer, to prevent the Indian whom he had wounded from killing him.

Many striking examples might be given of the fortitude of the Indians, and their resolution in suffering pain and torture. Some years ago the Shawano Indians, being obliged to remove from their habitations, in their way took a Muskohge warrior, known by the name of old Scrapy, prisoner; they bastinadoed him severely, and condemned him to the fiery torture. He underwent a great deal without shewing any concern; his countenance and behaviour were as if he suffered not the least pain. He told his persecutors, with a bold voice, that he was a warrior, that he had gained most of his martial reputation at the expence of their nation, and was desirous of shewing them, in the act of dying, that he was still as much their

superior

superior, as when he headed his gallant countrymen against them: that although he had fallen into their hands, and forfeited the protection of the Divine power, by some impurity or other when carrying the holy ark of war against his devoted enemies, yet he had so much remaining virtue as would enable him to punish himself more exquisitely than all their despicable, ignorant crowd possibly could; and that he would do so if they gave him liberty by untying him, and handing him one of the red-hot gun-barrels out of the fire. The proposal, and his method of address, appeared so exceedingly bold and uncommon, that his request was granted. Then suddenly seizing one end of the red-hot barrel, and brandishing it from side to side, he forced his way through the armed and surprised multitude, leaped down a prodigious steep and high bank into a branch of the river, dived through it, ran over a small island, and passed the other branch amidst a shower of bullets; and, though numbers of his enemies were in close pursuit of him, he got into a bramble swamp through which, though naked, and in a mangled condition, he reached his own country.

The Shewano Indians also captured a warrior of the Anantioch nation, and put him to the stake according to their usual solemnities. Having unconcernedly suffered much torture, he told them with scorn that they did not know how to punish a noted enemy: therefore he was willing to teach them, and would confirm the truth of his assertion if they allowed him the opportunity. Accordingly he requested of them a pipe and some tobacco, which was given him; as soon as he had lighted it, he sat down naked as he was on the women's burning torches that were within his circle, and continued smoking his pipe without the least discomposure. On this a head warrior leaped up and said, they saw plain enough that he was a warrior, and not afraid of dying, nor should he have died, only that he was both spoiled by the fire, and devoted to it

by their laws; however, though he was a very dangerous enemy, and his nation a treacherous people, it should be seen that they paid a regard to bravery, even in one who was marked with war-streaks at the cost of many of the lives of their beloved kindred; and then, by way of favour, he with his friendly tomahawk instantly put an end to all his pains. Though the merciful but bloody instrument was ready some minutes before it gave the blow, yet the spectators could not perceive the sufferer to change either his gesture or the steadiness of his countenance in the least.

When the Indians adopt an European as a brother warrior, the following ceremonies are practised. A feast is prepared of dog's flesh boiled in bear's grease, with huckle berries, of which it is expected every one should heartily partake. When the repast is over the war song is sung in the following words: "Master of life, view us well; we receive a brother warrior, who appears to have sense, shews strength in his arm, and does not refuse his body to the enemy." After the war song if the person does not discover any signs of fear, he is regarded with reverence and esteem: courage, in the opinion of the savages, being considered not only as an indispensable, but as the greatest recommendation. He is then seated on a beaver robe, and presented with a pipe of war to smoke, which is put round to every warrior, and a wampum belt is thrown over his neck.

The calumet, or Indian pipe, which is much larger than that the Indians usually smoke, is made of marble, stone, or clay, either red, white or black according to the custom of the nation, but the red is the most esteemed; the length of the handle is about four feet and a half, and made of strong cane, or wood, decorated with feathers of various colours, with a number of twists of female hair interwoven in different forms; the head is finely polished; two wings are fixed to it, which make it in appearance not unlike to Mercury's wand. This calumet is the symbol

symbol of peace, and the savages hold it in such estimation, that a violation of any treaty where it has been introduced, would, in their opinion, be attended with the greatest misfortunes. Wampum is of several colours, but the white and black are chiefly used; the former is made of the inside of the conque or clam shell, the latter of the muscle: both are worked in the form of a long bead, and perforated, in order to their being strung on leather, and made up into belts.

When the pipe has gone round, a sweating-house is prepared, with six long poles fixed in the ground, and pointed at the top; it is then covered with skins and blankets to exclude the air, and the area of the house will contain only three persons. The person to be adopted is then stripped naked, and enters the hut with two chiefs, two large stones made red-hot are brought in and thrown on the ground, water is then brought in a bark-dish and sprinkled on the stones with cedar branches, the steam arising from which, puts the person into a most profuse perspiration, and opens the pores to receive the other part of the ceremony.

When the perspiration is at the height, he quits the house, and jumps into the water; immediately on coming out a blanket is thrown over him, and he is led to the chief's hut, where he undergoes the following operation. Being extended on his back, the chief draws the figure he intends to make with a pointed stick, dipped in water in which gunpowder has been dissolved; after which, with ten needles dipped in vermilion, and fixed in a small wooden-frame, he pricks the delineated parts, and where the bolder outlines occur, he incises the flesh with a gun-flint; the vacant spaces, or those not marked with vermilion, are rubbed in with gunpowder, which produces the variety of red and blue; the wounds are then feared with pink-wood, to prevent them from festering.

This operation, which is performed at intervals, lasts two or three days. Every morning the parts are washed

with cold water, in which is infused an herb called Pockqueesegan, which resembles English box, and is mixed by the Indians with the tobacco they smoke, to take off the strength. During the process, the war songs are sung, accompanied by a rattle hung round with hawk bells, called *chissagay*, which is kept shaking to stifle the groans such pains must naturally occasion. Upon the ceremony being completed they give the person a name.

Dreams are particularly attended to by the Indians, and sometimes they make an artful use of the veneration paid to them, to carry any point which they may have in view. Sir William Johnson sitting in council with a party of Mohawks, the head chief told him he had dreamed last night that he had given him a fine laced coat, and he believed it was the same he then wore. Sir William smiled, and asked the chief if he really dreamed it; the Indian immediately answered in the affirmative. "Well then," says Sir William, "you must have it;" and instantly pulled it off, and desiring the chief to strip himself, put on him the fine coat. The Indian was highly delighted, and when the council broke up departed in great good humour, crying out *who-ab!* which is an expression of great satisfaction among them.

At the next council which was held, Sir William told the chief that he was not accustomed to dream, but that since he met him at the council he had dreamed a very surprising dream. The Indian wished to know it; Sir William, with some hesitation, told him he had dreamed that he had given him a tract of land on the Mohawk river, to build a house on, and make a settlement, extending about nine miles in length along the banks. The chief smiled, and looking very cheerfully at Sir William, told him, if he really dreamed it, he should have it; but that he would never dream with him again, for he had only got a laced coat, whereas Sir William was now entitled to a large bed, on which his

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ancestors had frequently slept. Sir William took possession of the land by virtue of an Indian deed, signed by the chiefs, and gave them some rum to finish the business. It is now a con-

siderable estate, but since the war the Americans have deprived him of it, with all the buildings, &c. which are very valuable.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

I cannot find that the following letter, which is copied from a M.S. in the Bodleian Library, was ever printed. As it appears to me not undeserving a place in your Magazine, I have taken the liberty to send it you.

I am, Gentlemen,

Your constant Reader,

OXONIENSIS.

FROM MR. POPE TO DR. SWIFT, IN ANSWER TO A LETTER FROM THE DOCTOR, PERSUADING MR. POPE TO CHANGE HIS RELIGION.

*Binfield, Dec. 8, 1713.*

DEAR SIR,

NOT to trouble you at present with the recital of all my obligations to you, I shall only mention two things, which I take particularly well of you; your desire that I should write to you, and your proposal of giving me twenty guineas to change my religion; which last you must give me leave to make the subject of this letter.

Sure no clergyman ever offered so much, out of his own purse, for the sake of any religion. 'Tis almost as many pieces of gold as an apostle could get of silver from the priests of old, on a much more valuable consideration. I believe it will be better worth my while to propose a change of my faith by subscription, than a translation of Homer. And to convince you how well disposed I am to the reformation, I shall be content, if you will prevail with my Lord-Treasurer, and the ministry, to rise to the same sum, each of them, on this pious account, as my Lord Halifax has done on the profane one. I am afraid there is no being at once a poet and a good Christian; and I am very much straitened between two, while the Whigs seem willing to contribute as much to continue me the one, as you would to make me the other. But if you can move every

man in the government, that has above 10,000*l.* a year, to subscribe as much as yourself, I shall become a convert, as most men do, when the Lords turn it to my interest. I know they have the truth of religion so much at heart, that they would certainly give more to have one good subject translated from popery to the church of England, than twenty heathenish authors out of any unknown tongue into ours. I therefore commission you, Mr. Dean, with full authority to transact this affair in my name, and to propose as follows:

First. That as to the head of our church, the pope, I may engage to renounce his power, whensoever I shall receive any particular indulgences from the head of your church, the queen.

As to communion in one kind, I shall also promise to change it for communion in both, as soon as the ministry will allow me wherewithal to eat and to drink.

For invocations to saints, mine shall be turned to dedications to sinners, when I shall find the great ones of this world as willing to do me any good, as I believe those of the other are.

You see I shall not be obstinate in the main points. But there is one

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article I must reserve, and which you seemed not unwilling to allow me, prayer for the dead. There are people, to whose souls I wish as well as to my own, and I must crave leave humbly to lay before them, that though their subscriptions above mentioned will suffice for myself, there are necessary perquisites and additions, which I must demand on the score of this charitable article. It is also to be considered, that the greater part of those whose souls I am most concerned for, were unfortunately hereticks, schismatics, poets, painters, or persons of such lives and manners, as few or no churches are willing to save. The expence will therefore be the greater to make an effectual provision for the said souls. Old Dryden, though a Roman Catholic, was a poet, and 'tis revealed in the visions of some ancient saints, that no poet was ever saved under some hundreds of masses. I cannot set his delivery from purgatory at less than 50*l.* sterling. Walth was not only a Socinian, (but what you will own is harder to be saved) a Whig. He cannot modestly be rated at less than a hundred. L'Estrange being a Tory, we compute him but at 20*l.* which I hope no friend of the party can deny to give to keep him from damning in the next life, considering they never gave him six-pence to keep him from starving in this. All this together amounts to 170*l.*

In the next place, I must desire you to represent that there are several of my friends yet living, whom I design, God willing, to out-live, in consideration of legacies, out of which, it is a doctrine in the reformed church, that not a farthing shall be allowed to save their souls who gave them. There is one who will die within these few months, one Mr. Jervas, who hath grievously offended in making the likeness of almost all things in heaven above or earth below. And one Mr. Gay, an unhappy youth, that writes pastorals during the time of divine service; whose case is the more deplorable, as he hath miserably

lavished away all that silver he should have reserved for his soul's health, in buttons and loops for his coat. I cannot pretend to have these people honestly saved under some hundred pounds, whether you consider the difficulty of such a work, or the extreme love and tenderness I bear them, which will infallibly make me push this charity as far as I am able.

There is but one more whose salvation I insist upon, and then I have done: but indeed it may prove of so much greater charge than all the rest, that I will only lay the case before you and the ministry, and leave it to their prudence and generosity what sum they shall think fit to bestow upon it. The person I mean is Dr. Swift, a dignified clergyman, but one, who, by his own confession, has composed more libels than sermons. If it be true, what I have heard often affirmed by innocent people, that too much wit is dangerous to salvation, this unfortunate gentleman must certainly be damned to all eternity. But I hope his long experience in the world, and frequent conversation with great men, will cause him (as it has some others) to have less and less wit every day. Be it as it will, I should not think my own soul deserved to be saved, if I did not endeavour to save his, for I have all the obligations in nature to him. He has brought me into better company than I cared for; made me merrier when I was sick than I had a mind to be; put me upon making poems, on purpose that he might alter them, &c. I once thought I could never have discharged my debt to his kindness, but have lately been informed, to my unspeakable comfort, that I have more than paid it all. For Mons. de Montaigne has assured me, that the person who receives a benefit, obliges the giver; for since the chief endeavours of one friend is to do good to the other, he, who administers both the matter and occasion, is the man that is liberal. At this rate it is impossible Dr. Swift should be ever out of my debt, as matters stand already; and for the future

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His most faithful, affectionate  
Humble servant,

A. POPE.

I have finished the Rape of the  
Lock, but believe I may stay here  
till Christmas without hindrance of  
business.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL  
MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

In looking over some old books lately, I met with the follow-  
ing account of a very extraordinary duel, from a manuscript found in the  
library of Mr. Goodwin, author of the Life of Henry —, and supposed  
to have happened the latter end of that monarch's reign. I believe it is not  
generally known, and may tend to entertain your numerous readers. If you  
think it deserving of a place in your valuable Miscellany, by inserting it,  
you will greatly oblige your constant reader,

CLERICUS.

HIS GRACE THE DUKE OF B—— TO THE LORD B——, BEING THE  
FIRST LETTER THAT PASSED BETWEEN THEM.

MY LORD,

THE affront which you gave me at the Imperial minister's ball  
last night, would argue me a person  
very unworthy the character I bear,  
to let it pass unregarded. To prove  
me that adventurous knight, which  
your evasive expression would have  
given the noble lady to understand,  
may perhaps be the most acceptable  
means to reconcile your spleen: con-  
vince me then that you are more of a  
gentleman than I have reason to be-  
lieve, by meeting me near the first  
tree, behind the lodge in Hyde Park,  
precisely at half after five to-morrow  
morning; and, that there may be no  
pretensions to delay, I have sent by  
the bearer of this two swords, of  
which I give you the privilege to make  
a choice, and shall approve of what-  
ever terms of fighting you will be  
pleased to propose. In the interim I  
wish your lordship a good rest.

Whitehall, 9 o'clock.

B——.

LORD B——'s answer to the above.

I RECEIVED your grace's message,  
and accept the contents. It would  
give me a sensible concern to be  
obliged to give up the pretensions,  
which your grace is doubtful of. It  
was not an oversight, I presume, that

your grace gave me the privilege to  
chuse my sword, except your grace  
has been so little used to this sort of  
ceremony, as to have forgot that it is  
the challenger's choice. This, how-  
ever, is but a trifle (if any thing); the  
terms I leave to our seconds, and will  
not fail to appear at the time ap-  
pointed, and in the interim I wish  
your grace a very good night.

Carvendish Square, 11 o'clock.

B——.

After my lord B—— had an-  
swered his grace's letter, he visited se-  
veral of his friends, and was observed  
to be remarkably jocose when at Lady  
Nottingham's, which occasioned a  
young lady, after his departure, to re-  
mark, that she fancied there was some-  
thing very agreeable to his lordship re-  
newed again, relating to the countess  
of E——, well knowing his extraor-  
dinary passion for that lady. He told  
the messenger that carried his letter,  
to bring his grace's answer to lieuten-  
ant-general D'Lee's, the gentleman  
whom he had pitched upon for his  
second, and with whom he lay that  
night, at his house in St. James's  
Street; which was done. About four  
in the morning his lordship waked,  
and got softly up, without (as he  
thought)

thought) being observed by his bed-fellow; and dressing himself, buckled on his sword, and fixed two agate flints in his pistols, then charged them; but recollecting that his grace's second would probably desire to see them loaded, drew them again. By this time the lieutenant was awake, and observing his lordship take a book out of his pocket, thought it improper to give him to know he was observed. His lordship kneeled down by a small jasper table in the lieutenant's bedroom, and seemed to pray with great devotion for a quarter of an hour, often repeating, just loud enough to be heard, the errors of his youthful days, and fervently supplicated the Almighty not to impute them: after which he arose, and bid the lieutenant awake, for he would not willingly have his grace, he said, wait a moment, as the morning was a little rainy, and cold withal. By the time they were accoutred, it wanted just half an hour of the appointed time: Lieutenant D'Lee desired to view his lordship's sword, and examined the point and handle very cautiously, then returned it, by adding, that he heartily wished it was going to be employed in a cause more serviceable to his country: his lordship answered, it could but be of little consequence in that respect, let the event be what it would. Just as his lordship was opening the door for their departure, the lieutenant-general desired to know if there was any thing his lordship thought proper to communicate; to which he replied, it was very fortunate that he had mentioned that, and delivered a letter, directed for the right honourable the countess of E—, desiring that he would give it to her alone, and not upon any consideration trust it to another hand; as for his family affairs, he said they were already settled according to his will. On this they immediately left the apartment, and arrived somewhat before the appointed time, and took several turns from the lodge to the tree. His lordship several times expressed wonder at his grace's delay,

though it was not two minutes, by lieutenant D'Lee's watch above the limited hour, when he arrived, attended with one second only. He bid his lordship a good morning, and hoped they had not waited for them long; then pulled out his watch, said he had hit it to a point; adding, at the same time, that he had rather die than break his promise upon such an occasion. His lordship returned the expression, with this addition, that though they had waited a little, there was sufficient time left to dispatch the business they were upon. To which his grace replied, the sooner it is dispatched, the more leisure there will be behind. In the interim the seconds were pairing their swords, and each one loaded his adversary's pistols; then agreed to the following terms: viz. 1st. That the distance of firing should not be less, at either time, than seven yards and a half. 2dly. That if either should be dangerously wounded the first discharge, the duel should cease, if the wounded person would own his life in the hands of his antagonist. 3dly. That between the firing and drawing their swords there should be no limited time, but each should endeavour to make the first thrust. 4thly. That if either should yield, as in the second article, during the engagement with sword, whether by a wound, false step, or any other means, then the engagement should cease. To which four articles they both consented. His grace stripped off his coat, which was scarlet trimmed with broad gold lace, when my Lord B——'s second stepped in to unbutton his waistcoat, on which, with some indignation, his grace replied, do you take me to be a person of so little honour, as to defend myself by such base means as hiding a shield under my doublet. Lieutenant-general D'Lee desired his excuse, adding, he was bound in honour to see justice done to the cause he had espoused. The same ceremony passed upon his lordship, who had already pulled off his coat, which was crimson with broad silver lace; and both

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both the combatants being now ready, my Lord B—— added, "Now, if it please your grace, come on," when they instantly both stepped into the circle. His grace fired and missed, but my Lord B——, perhaps from more experience, knew that battles were seldom won by hasty measures, deliberately levelled his, and wounded his antagonist near the throat. They both discharged again, when his lordship received a slight wound in his turn, on which they instantly drew their swords, and impetuously charged each other, rather each of them meditating the death of his adversary, than his own safety. In the first or second thrust Lord B—— entangled the toe of his pump in a tuft of grass, and in evading a push from his antagonist, fell on his right side, but supporting himself with the sword hand, by inconceivable dexterity, sprung backwards, and evaded the push apparently aimed at his heart. A little pause intervening here, his grace's second proposed to his lordship a reconciliation, but the ardent thirst after each other's blood so overpowered the strongest arguments of reason, that they insisted to execute each other's will, whatever might be the consequence. Nay, the anger of his grace was raised to such a pitch of revenge, that he in that critical moment swore, if for the future, either of the seconds interposed, he would make his way through his body. Thus, after finding all remonstrances of saving them without effect, the seconds retired to their limited distance, and perhaps one of the most extraordinary duels ensued, that the records of history can produce, fairly disputed hand to hand. The parrying after this interval brought on a close lock, which *Mons. des Barreux* says, nothing but the key of the body can open; in this position they stood for, I dare say, a minute, striving to disengage each other by successive wrenches; in one of which his grace's sword point got entangled in the guard of his lordship's, which, in fact, his lordship overlooked; so that this disadvantage was recovered

by his grace, before the consequence, which it might have brought on, was executed. At last, in a very strong wrench on both sides, their swords sprung from their hands; I dare say, his lordship's flew six or seven yards upright. This accident, however, did not retard the affair a moment, but both seizing their thistles at the same time, the duel was renewed with as much malevolence as ever. By this time his lordship had received a thrust through the inner part of his sword arm, passing right forward to the exterior part of the elbow; his, at the same time, passing a little over that of his antagonist, but alertly drawing back, I think partly before his grace had recovered his push, run him through the body a little above the right pap. His lordship's sword being thus engaged, nothing was left for his defence but a naked left arm, and his grace being in this dangerous situation, yet had fair play at almost any part of his lordship's body; yet he bravely put by several thrusts exactly levelled at his throat, till at last, having two fingers cut off by defending the pushes, and the rest mangled to a terrible degree, his grace lodged his sword one rib below his heart, and in this affecting condition they both stood, without either being able to make another push, and each of them, by this time, was, in a manner, covered with blood and gore; when both the seconds stepped in, and begged they would consider their situation, and the good of their future state; yet neither would consent to part, until, by the greater loss of blood which his lordship sustained, in being first wounded, he fell down senseless, but in such a position, that he drew his sword out of his grace's body; but recovering himself a little before he was quite down, faltered forward, and falling with his thigh across his sword, snapped it in the middle. His grace observing that he was no longer capable of defence, or sensible of danger, immediately broke his own, and fell on his body with the deepest signs of concern, and both expired before any

any assistance could be got, though Dr. Fountain had orders from his grace, not to be out of the way, in case he should be called upon that morning. Thus fell these two gallant men, whose personal bravery history can scarcely equal, and whose honor nothing but such a cause could stain.

This anecdote was signed R. Deerpurth, who, it is presumed, was his grace's second.

P. S. In the above manuscript several passages are quite defaced, especially the reigning year, which I could make nothing of, at least reconcilable to history. The language I have modernized, partly through the whole; but these seven last lines are not one of them legible, though I believe them to contain reasons why the above unhappy affair never got into history.—See the manuscript original, under letter M. dextra.

### A SHORT HISTORY OF AGRICULTURE.

**A**GRICULTURE is one of the most ancient as well as the most useful of all the arts; and it appears that it owes its origin to mankind uniting together in society. The first inhabitants of the globe were probably not acquainted with any other method of nourishing themselves than with the fruits which they collected at the roots of trees. As they increased in number, they found it necessary to have recourse to aliments of some other kind. Those who frequented the borders of the sea, lakes, and rivers, applied themselves to fishing, and those who resided in the neighbourhood of forests, employed their time in hunting animals, the flesh of which supplied them with food. But when societies were formed, they thought of procuring a subsistence more certain, and of a more agreeable nature. They tore up, therefore, in the forests, those trees, the fruits of which had been found most palatable, and cultivated them around their habitations. The vine was propagated, and the earth received in its bosom the seeds of such plants as had been remarked to be distinguished by their nutritive qualities. Observation, industry, and necessity, ever ingenious, contributed to bring their first attempts to perfection, and thus agriculture soon became an art.

According to the Scriptures, mankind in the earliest ages of the world

gave themselves up to agriculture. The case was the same after the flood, and the cultivation of the earth was the sole employment of the patriarchs. Enured to labor, and strengthened by the continual exercise of temperance and sobriety, they were subject to few infirmities; the source and cause of which is too often to be found in idleness and luxury. The earth, cultivated by their care, and that of their children, produced abundant crops, and their flocks and herds encreasing, covered the fertile plains.

It is well known, that the inhabitants of Mesopotamia and Palestine applied themselves to the cultivation of the earth in the most remote periods. Ozias, king of Judah, had a great number of labourers and vintagers upon the mountains of Carmel.

The Assyrians, the Medes, and the Persians, followed agriculture also. According to Berosus, it was so ancient, that it might be traced back to the first ages of their history. The Egyptians, who pretended to have a divine origin, gave Isis the honor of discovering corn, and they ascribed to Osiris the invention of the plough, and of the cultivation of the vine. It cannot be denied, that agriculture was very ancient in Egypt, since, according to sacred history, Abraham retired thither during the time of a famine, and Jacob, on the like occasion, sent his sons to the same place



place to purchase corn in that country. Agriculture was always held in great honor.

As there is no people on earth who carried industry, labor, and ingenuity, farther than the Egyptians, there are none who were better acquainted with the sources of happiness and prosperity. They knew that agriculture was the firmest support of a state, and the essential means to preserve the immense population of their dynasties, so that this art amongst them formed a particular object of their polity, and of the attention of government. It cannot be doubted, that the great love which the Egyptians had for the sciences, and above all for agriculture, gave rise to learned works on this subject. It is probable, that there were a great number of treatises respecting agriculture in the libraries of Memphis and Alexandria, but those libraries were unfortunately destroyed.

The Greeks, imitating the Egyptians, who made gods of every thing that excited their astonishment, thought Ceres to be the goddess of corn; but, according to Polydore Virgil, the Greeks claimed the invention of many things which they had been taught by the Egyptians. It will be sufficient to recur to the first ages of their history, to be convinced that agriculture was not even known in Greece, when it had made considerable progress among the Phœnicians, the Midianites, and the Egyptians. After having travelled through Egypt, the Greeks introduced into their country the use of the plough. Their taste for agriculture increasing, all their political views were directed towards that branch of public economy; and the Grecian philosophers, renowned for the wisdom of their legislation, made regulations respecting this object, which is so essential to the prosperity of an empire. Athens and Lacedæmon became in a little time two flourishing cities, and it was to the art of tilling the earth, that they were indebted for their elevation.

Aristeus of Athens was the first person who cultivated the olive, and invented a method of extracting oil from it. To the Athenians we are indebted for the fig-tree: the same people brought at different times quince-trees from the island of Crete, chestnut-trees from Sardis, peach and walnut-trees from Persia, and lemon-trees from Media. All these foreign productions, and many others, have, by means of the Greeks, been transmitted to us. The Romans, having conquered Greece, transported to Italy all the trees which they found there. We must refer to that period the introduction of olives at Rome; since, according to Feneftella, none of them had been seen either in Italy, Spain, or even Africa, under the reign of Tarquin. It is much to be doubted, whether the almond-tree was known in Italy in the time of Cato, and if it was not carried thither after the conquest of Greece. It is certain, that the cherry-tree was unknown there in the year 680, after the building of the city, and that Lucullus brought it from Pontus after the defeat of Mithridates. The first pistachio-trees were brought from Syria by L. Vitellius, under the reign of Tiberius.

In those happy times, when the Greeks thought of nothing but cultivating their fields, and causing agriculture to flourish, they became formidable and powerful. Their enemies no longer dared to attack them; but this glory was only of short duration. The ornamental arts soon assumed the place of agriculture, so much that the magistrates were obliged to transport corn from foreign countries. This decline hastened the ruin of Greece.

The Romans honoured agriculture in a singular manner. Romulus, Numa, and Ancus Martius, recommended nothing so strongly to the people as the cultivation of their lands, and the care of their flocks. The rustic tribes formed at Rome the first order of citizens; and, in the happiest periods of the Republic, the  
senators

senators came from the fields to the senate-house, in order to deliberate on the most important affairs. L. Quintus Cincinnatus and Atilius were employed, the one in labouring, and the other in sowing his field, when they were sent for to become chiefs of the republic. The latter was elected consul. The first, created dictator at a very critical conjuncture, quitted his rural instruments, came to Rome, which he entered amidst the acclamations of the people, put himself at the head of the army, vanquished his enemies, and returned sixteen days after to his country house, to resume his usual functions. The ambassadors of the Samnites having come to offer a large sum of gold to Curius Dentatus, found him seated near his fire, where he was boiling some beans, and received from him the following sage reply: "Gold is not necessary to him who can content himself with such a repast, and who thinks it nobler to conquer those who have gold than to possess it." This illustrious Roman had thrice received the honour of the triumph.

Whilst agriculture was held in estimation Rome continued to flourish. "The exercise of that laborious life," says Pliny, "formed those men, who distinguished themselves so much in the military art, but luxury having afterwards given a fatal blow to agriculture, soon completed the ruin of the republic."

Gaul, it is certain, was cultivated very early. The great population of that country, which obliged the inhabitants to send colonies to Germany and the South, and the facility with which Cæsar found subsistence for his troops, all announce that it produced abundance of corn. The Romans, who were well acquainted with

the art of profiting by their conquests, spared no pains to advance the progress of agriculture in Gaul. The considerable expences which they bestowed on it rendered it the most fertile and beautiful of their provinces. This source of riches was, however, destroyed, when the northern barbarians ravaged the empire, and was not re-established till a long time after.

Under the first race of the French kings agriculture was in a very languishing condition, but it acquired some vigour in the beginning of the second race, a period, when the Monks applied themselves to cultivate the earth with a zeal and knowledge, the good effects of which have been ever since experienced. The reign of Charlemagne, during which every thing assumed a new form, raised agriculture to a high degree of splendor, but it was not of long duration, for the invasion of the Normans and the feudal system, plunged France for a series of years into ignorance and barbarity. The kings of France, however, gradually made regulations in favour of the husbandmen, which rendered their situation much better. Those of Francis I. Henry III. Charles IX. and Henry IV. were confirmed by their successors. Lewis XIV. added new ones, dictated by that enlightened spirit which began to prevail in his reign; but under Lewis XV. a fondness for agriculture becoming general amongst all ranks, this art made a most astonishing progress. Men of letters did every thing in their power to contribute towards bringing it to perfection; chemists, botanists, philosophers, and naturalists, all directed a part of their researches towards this object, and we have great reason to hope that it will continue to be encouraged still more and more in every country of Europe.

# REFLECTIONS ON THE COMPARATIVE ANTIQUITY OF THE ROCKS AND STRATA WHICH COMPOSE THE SHELL OF OUR GLOBE.

BY M. J. J. FERBER.

FROM THE TRANSACTIONS OF THE IMPERIAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF PETERSBURGH.

OUR author says, that the mere mineralogist, who should imagine that mountains of granite or marble were, in all their parts, as pure and homogeneous as the specimens in his cabinet, would be unable to recognise some of these rocks amid a chain of mountains; or to comprehend the order, according to which they are arranged in the vast repositories of nature, where nothing is more common than to find, in the same quarry, species and varieties, which, in our cabinets we carefully separate. If, for instance, we examine a mountain of granite, we find a mixture, not only of all the varieties of this rock, but also masses of gneiss, of schist, or of porphyry: these masses are indeed very small in proportion to the mountains, and ought to be considered as parts of the substance of the granite, and as formed, together with this, by the same operation of nature: but though these small heterogeneous masses may be considered as coeval with the granite which contains them, it by no means follows that the porphyry, the gneiss, or the schist, which either forms separate rocks, or constitutes those thick strata that in some mountains are found to cover the granite, is of equal antiquity with this fundamental rock. The same accidental heterogeneity, which is observed in mountains of granite, is also found in those of schist and gneiss, in which we sometimes see small masses of granite, or of porphyry. These local anomalies may have been all owing to a common cause: for, if we suppose the schist and gneiss to have been in a state of fluidity and dissolution, the earths, of which they are composed, may have been so differently combined, as to have produced

these varieties. This academician, however, thinks it more probable that the schist and gneiss proceed from the decomposition of pre-existing granite, the grosser parts of which, having undergone little alteration, were again agglutinated under the form of granite, or of porphyry, and enclosed by an aggregation of the smaller parts, which becoming argillified, producing gneiss and schist. With respect to veins of granite, observed in rocks of schist, M. Ferber is of opinion that their origin is posterior to that of the schist in which they are found; and that they are owing to decomposed fragments of more elevated mountains of primitive granite, while yet in a soft state, which, being thrown into the fissures of the schistous rock, were there agglutinated and chrysalized.

The substance of calcareous rock is not less heterogeneous than that of the mountains already mentioned: the water, by which it was deposited, was mixed with a large proportion of siliceous and argillaceous earths and other heterogeneous matter. This, says the author, confirms the opinion, that marble, and other calcareous rocks, are of a later origin than those of granite and schist; the purest marble is not free from mixtures of this kind: in that of Carara, crystals of quartz are often found; the white marble of Dientin contains a considerable proportion of manganese, and the Cipolino has regular strata of mica, which are probably owing to the decomposition of a pre-existent gneiss or schist. M. Ferber mentions several other instances of this kind, and supposes that the heterogeneous substances were formed at the same time with the calcareous rock; but we must not, he says, hence conclude that all the sand,

argil, or manganese, of which the substance of other mountains consists, is coeval with these strata of calcareous rock or marble; yet thus, adds he, do they reason, who, from some masses of granite, found within a rock of schist, conclude, that this is not less ancient than granite itself. It is from the predominant species of rock, and not from accidental varieties, that mountains must be denominated and classed. Nature ever remains true to her principles, when she operates on a large scale; these we must keep in mind, and not imagine that she departs from them, whenever an object occurs, which to us appears extraordinary, merely because we have not properly examined it.

M. Ferber thinks that we may easily account for mountains of granite containing small masses of porphyry. Veins of argil and bole are often found in granite; and, if particles of felspar happen to be intermixed with the bole, and this be hardened, porphyry will be formed. In the same manner may its existence in mountains of gneiss and schist, as it is formed from decomposed frag-

ments of granite, or perhaps from a second decomposition of gneiss, it is highly probable that some felspar may have remained undecomposed, and have been mixed with the mass, while yet in a soft state.

In whatever way we account for the formation of these mountains, we must allow that nature has a faculty of producing felspar, or any other kind of stone, whenever, with a due proportion of its constituent ingredients, the circumstances necessary to its production are combined. Argillaceous rocks are by no means void of the elements of felspar; and the fluid state in which they once were, was favourable to its chrySTALLIZATION; nor is there in all this any thing repugnant to the laws of nature; for we daily behold her performing similar operations. The author's conclusion is, therefore, that rocks of the same denomination may be very different with respect to antiquity; and that the geologists must distribute rocks of the same genus, species, and variety into different classes, according to their comparative antiquity.

COPY OF A LETTER FROM DR. FRANKLIN TO PROFESSOR  
LANDRIANI, OF ITALY.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

SIR,

I Have received the excellent work *Upon the Utility of Electrical Conductors*, which you had the goodness to send me. I read it with great pleasure, and beg you to accept my sincere thanks for it.

Upon my return to this country, I found the number of conductors much increased. Many proofs of their efficacy in preserving buildings from lightning having demonstrated their utility. Among other instances, my own house was one day attacked by lightning, which occasioned the neighbours to run in to give assistance, in case of its being on fire.

Philadelphia, Oct. 14, 1787.

But no damage was done, and my family was only found a good deal frightened with the violence of the explosion.

Last year, my house being enlarged, the conductor was obliged to be taken down. I found, upon examination of the copper, which was originally nine inches long, and about one-third of an inch in diameter in its thickest part, had been almost entirely melted, and that its connection with the rod of iron below, was become very slight. Thus, in the course of time, this invention has proved of use to the author of it, and has added

this

this personal advantage to the pleasure he before received, from having been useful to others.

Mr. Riittenhouse, our astronomer, has informed me, that having observed with his excellent telescope, many conductors that are within the field of his view, he has remarked,

in various instances, that the points were melted in like manner. There is no example of a house provided with a perfect conductor which has suffered any considerable damage; and even those which are without them have suffered little, since conductors have become common in this city.

B. FRANKLIN.

## ON THE INVENTION OF GUNPOWDER.

ONE of the most important inventions of the middle ages is doubtless that of gunpowder, and its use in war. The improvements which that art has experienced in battles, and above all, in the manner of attacking and defending places, the superiority of the Europeans in this respect, and their power, which has been extended in almost all parts of the globe, may be considered as the consequences of this noble and useful discovery. It was this which checked those swarms of barbarians, whom the policy of the Romans, with all the forces of their empire, and the bravery of their legions, was not able to restrain. Europe, at present the centre of the sciences and of civilization, has no occasion to dread being again plunged into ignorance and barbarity by revolutions. Wars are now become less cruel and destructive, and the fate of conquered nations much less deplorable. Let us examine, then, an invention which has procured us so many advantages, and furnished so many new resources to our industry.

According to a progressive series, common in human knowledge, and

monuments left us by different nations, the history of gunpowder presents several epochs, which ought to be carefully distinguished.

First. The discovery of saltpetre, the principal ingredient in gunpowder, and that of its detonation.

Secondly. The mixture of saltpetre with sulphur and charcoal, which gave rise to the invention of gunpowder.

Thirdly. The application of gunpowder to artificial fire-works.

Fourthly. Its being employed as an agent in blowing up mines, and destroying fortifications\*.

As the ancients were not acquainted with saltpetre† and its properties, they could not invent gunpowder, of which it is the principal ingredient. The knowledge of saltpetre must, therefore, have preceded that of gunpowder. It is to be presumed that the knowledge of this substance came from the East, because it is in India, China, and other oriental countries, that saltpetre is generally found ready prepared by nature‡. The Indians and the Chinese seem to have known before the Europeans, the art of extracting it from its ma-

\* The use of gunpowder in mines is not older than the year 1487. The Genoese then employed it for the first time against the Florentines, at the siege of Seranessa, and the Spaniards against the French, at the siege of the castle of Ocuf, in 1503. See *Diction. Encycloped. Art. Mine*, and *Robins' New Principles of Gunnery*, page 11. The passage in the Chronicle of Cornerus, where he speaks of the mines of Rammsberg, near Goslar, which were blown up in the twelfth century with fire (*appositis igni*) does not allude to gunpowder. *Eccardi Script.* tom. II. pag. 811.

† The *natron*, *nitron*, *nitrum* of the ancients was only a simple saline substance such as the mineral and vegetable alkali. See *The Dissertation of M. Hagen in the Magazin de Hambourg*, tom. XXV. p. 115.

‡ Common saltpetre is made by combining nitrous acid with fixed vegetable alkali, to the degree of saturation.



trices, and of refining and purifying it. We have every reason, therefore, to believe, that these nations must have been the first who discovered that property of it which we call detonation, and that, to encrease its effect, they have thought of combining it with charcoal and sulphur. We still find incontestible traces which prove to us, that gunpowder was in use among the Indians\* and the Chinese in very remote ages, and at a period much anterior to that when India and China began to be frequented by Europeans. The Chinese, whose saltpetre is very superior in quality to that of Europe, composed very early a kind of powder, which they employed at first in artificial fire-works. They used it afterwards as an active principle, and for throwing stones and bullets to a great distance. Their attempts in the former way appear to be as old as the tenth century, but those in the latter were not made till the thirteenth†.

It is, however, certain, that, notwithstanding this knowledge, the Chinese artillery has always remained in its primitive infancy, and, like the greater part of their other arts, has not been attended with any progressive improvement.

It appears by the works of a celebrated Arabian chemist, named Geber Ben Hajan, that the Arabs were acquainted with saltpetre in the eighth century of the Christian æra. If they derived this knowledge from the Indians and Chinese, with whom they were connected, it is probable that they acquired that also of gunpowder. We, indeed, observe among the Arabs, the same progression in this art as among the Chinese. They first used powder for artificial fire-works, and did not employ it till much later, as an agent for projecting heavy bodies‡. One is tempted to believe that in the time of St. Lewis, they used saltpetre or gunpowder in Egypt, to encrease the strength, brightness, and

\* Tavernier, in his *Travels*, vol. II. book III. chap. 7, pretends that gunpowder was invented in the kingdom of Alhem, in India, and that it was carried thence to Pegu and China.

† See Messrs. Visselou and Galland's *Supplement to the Bibliothéque Orientale*, page 118, where the reader will find several extracts respecting the origin of gunpowder in China, taken from the ancient Chinese annals. By these extracts it appears beyond a doubt, that in the year 1000, the Chinese used gunpowder for artificial fire-works, and in 1232, they employed cannon, as well as their enemies the Moguls, who were engaged in the conquest of China. According to the account of Father Gaubil, in his *History of the Dynasty of the Moguls*, p. 70, 71, 93, the warlike machines, which those two nations used, were undoubtedly loaded with gunpowder, and formed like our cannons and mortars. They projected stones, and also globes of iron, filled with powder, which set fire to every thing where they fell. The noise made by these machines when discharged, was like that of thunder, and might be heard at the distance of an hundred *lys*, that is to say, of ten of our leagues.

‡ Michael Casiri published in 1770, at Madrid, by order of the King of Spain, a catalogue of the Arabic manuscripts in the Escorial, under the title of *Bibliotheca Arabico-Hispana Escorialensis*. In the first volume of this work, there are many passages taken from Arabic authors, respecting the use and antiquity of gunpowder among the Arabs. One of these authors, who was a member of the council of Saleh, the last Sultan of Egypt but one of the dynasty of the Ayoubites, in a historical and geographical work, called *Notitia et Methodus regia*, written about 1249, gives the following description of warlike machines, used then among the Arabs: "Serpunt fufurrantque scorpiones circumligati ac pulvere nitrato incensi, unde explosi fulgurant ac incendunt, iam videre erat manganum (a warlike machine) excussum veluti nobem per æra extendi, ac tonitrus instar, horrendum edere fragorem, ignemque undæquaque vomens, omnia dirumpere, incendere, in cineres redigere." It is plainly seen by this passage, that the author alludes to artificial fire-works, projected from machines, by the help of gunpowder or saltpetre. The word *Barud*, used in the Arabic text, is the same as that which the Arabs, the Persians, and the Turks still use to express gunpowder.

explosive

explosive force of the Greek fire\*. We may conjecture this from the noise which that fire made at its explosion, and the great light which it diffused. Saltpetre, however, was not the only principle of this explosion, since, to produce it, these Arabs, according to Joinville, had recourse also to ancient warlike machines. We afterwards find that nations carry the knowledge of gunpowder from the East into Spain, where they used it about the beginning of the fourteenth century, as a powerful agent in sieges†. The use of gunpowder and fire arms passed from Spain to France, and was thence con-

veyed to other kingdoms of Europe, in which, however, we find no certain traces of them till about the middle of the fourteenth century.

The first European chemist who seems to have been acquainted with gunpowder and its effects, was the celebrated Roger Bacon, an English Franciscan monk of the thirteenth century, who speaks very clearly of it in his works.‡ It is, however, to be presumed, that he derived this knowledge rather from the Arabian authors, than from the manuscripts of a certain Greek, named Marcus, who gives an account of the composition of gunpowder,§ but nobody knows at what time

\* Joinville, in his History of St. Lewis, Du Canges' edition, p. 39, says, "Il faisoit tel bruit à venir, qu'il sembloit que ce fust foudre qui cheut du ciel, et me sembloit d'un grant dragon voltant par l'air: et gettoit si grant clarté qu'il faisoit aussi cler dedans nostre ost comine le jour."

† An historian of Granada, named Abu Abdalla Ebn Alkhatib, expressed himself thus, in the year of the Hegira 712, and of the Christian æra 1312, in his History of Spain: "Ille (the king of Granada) castra movens, multo milite hostium urbem Baza obsedit, ubi machinam illam maximam, Naphtha et globo instructam, admoto igne, in munitam arcem cum strepitu explosit." Two passages of the Chronicle of King Alphonso XI. leave us in no doubt respecting the existence of cannon among the Moors. The first alludes to the siege of Algezira, undertaken by that Prince in 1342. The author expresses himself thus, in chap. CCXXXIII. "Multa Mauros ab oppido in exercitum disposuissent tonitrua, quibus ferreas pilas, malis Matanis prægrandibus pares, emittebant; idque tam longe, ut aliæ obsidentium copiarum stationem præterirent, aliæ ipsas offenderent copias." And in chap. CCCXXXVII. of the same Chronicle, at the year 1344, we find the following passage: "Quorum maxima parte concessâ die vigesima quarta hujus mensis Februarii, quinque (naves) Zabre et Sagetie oppidi portum subiere, farina, melle, butyro, et, quo tonitrus emittebatur, pulvere onustæ." See Casiri, pag. 7 and 8.

‡ Bacon, in a letter on the "folly of magic and the secret operations of nature and art," transcribed by Mangetus in his *Bibliotheca Chemica*, Vol. I. page 620, expresses himself thus: "Nam in omnem distantiam, quam volumus, possumus artificialiter componere ignem comburentem, ex SALE PETRÆ ET ALIIS," (some manuscripts add "videlicet sulphure et carbonum pulvere.")—Nam soni, velut tonitrus et coruscationes, possunt fieri in aëre; imo majore honore, quam illa quæ sunt per naturam. Nam, modica materia adaptata, scilicet et quantitate unius pollicis, sonum facit, horribilem et coruscationem ostendit vehementem, et hoc fit multis modis, quibus civitas, aut exercitus destruat, ad modum artificii Gedeonis. Does Bacon speak here of the Greek fire, the effect of which must have been augmented by gunpowder, or of saltpetre? However this may be, it is certain that he was acquainted with the use of it in artificial fire-works. He explains himself thus in another passage: "Et experimentum hujus, rei capimus, ex hoc ludicro puerili, quod fit in multis mundi partibus, scilicet ut instrumento facto at quantitate pollicis humani, ex violentia illius salis, qui salpetræ vocatur, tam horribilis sonus nascitur, tam modicæ rei, scilicet modici pergamenti, quod fortis tonitruum rugitum et coruscationem maximam sui luminis jubar excedit. See Robin's new principles of gunnery, page 18. Joannes Friend Hist. Medicinæ, operum Medicorum, edit. in 4to. page 257, and Georg. Pafchius de novis inventis, Cap. VII. § 57.

§ Chaussepied, in his supplement to Bayle's Dictionary, under the article Bacon, gives an extract from Marcus's book of *Ignium*, after a manuscript of Dr. Mead. The translation of this passage is as follows. "The second kind of flying fire is prepared in this manner: take a pound of live sulphur, two pounds of the charcoal of willow, and six pounds of saltpetre, pound them altogether very small in a marble mortar, and afterwards put the powder into a tube, either to fly into the air, or to explode with the

time he lived. A passage published by the learned Du Cange, and taken from an account given in 1338 by Bartholomew du Drach, treasurer of war, is generally quoted, to prove that gunpowder was known and used in France, under the reign of Philip Valois. This passage is as follows, "To Henry de Faumehon, for providing powder, and other things necessary for the cannons which were before Puy Guillaume."\* There is reason, however, to doubt the truth and authenticity of this extract, because we do not find, either in Froissart, or any other French author of the same period any real proofs, that gunpowder was then employed by the French in their wars against England. The words powder,† cannons and bombards, which are to be met with in the authors and monuments of the fourteenth century, are so far from establishing the existence of fire-arms, that they may be equally applied to the ancient machines and engines used in war. The authority

of John Villani,‡ a Florentine historian of the fourteenth century, who ascribes the loss of the battle of Cressy in 1346 to bombards loaded with balls of fire which the English made use of, is much weakened by the silence of all the other cotemporary writers.§ It is lessened also by that of John Schæfelder, a German gentleman, who, though in that battle, and wounded, makes no mention of fire-arms in the account which he has left us of it.|| We should therefore be authorised to give another explanation to the above passage of Villani, or to suppose that some alterations†† had been made in the work, were it not well proved by monuments worthy of credit, that the new artillery was known in France in the year 1345††† which was that preceding the epoch of the battle of Cressy; and that, in the course of ten years after, it began to be introduced also into the other states of Europe. In 1356 the city of Nuremburg purchased the first powder

the noise of thunder. It is to be observed, that if you wish to make the tube dry, it must be then long and closely filled with powder, well rammed down; but if you wish it to burst with a loud noise, it must be short, thick, half full of powder, and strongly stopped at both ends."

\*Du Cange, Glossar. Voce Bombarda.

†A powder made of quick-lime, which was thrown amongst the enemy to prevent them from seeing, and to blind them, was formerly used. See *Egidius Romanus*, called *Gilles de Rome*, tutor to Philip the Handsome, in his treatise, entitled *de Regimine Principum*, and addressed to that Prince. Book III. part III. chap. 21. and Froissart, Vol. I. chap. 158.

‡Book XII. chap. 65. "E ordinò il Re d'Inghilterra i suoi arcieri, che n'haven gran quantità su per le carra, e tali di sotto, e con bombarde, che factavanno pallottole di ferro con fuoco per impaurire, e disertare i cavalli de' Francheschi." Which in English is, "And the King of England disposed his archers, of whom he had a great number, in chariots and on foot, with engines, which projected small iron-balls with fire, to intimidate and disperse the French cavalry."

§An argument used by M. Villaret, *Hist. de France*, T. V. p. 104, to confute the assertion of Villani, is that we do not find in any historian the least proof of artillery having been employed at the famous battle of Poitiers, which was fought ten years after that of Cressy.

¶ In Peziz Script. Rerum Austriacar. T. I. page 967.

|| The words "pallatole con fuoco" may be translated as well small bullets made red-hot in the fire, and projected by the ancient warlike engines, as small bullets projected by means of fire or gunpowder.

††An ample criticism on this passage of Villani may be found in the learned dissertation of M. Temler on the antiquity of the invention of gunpowder, where he endeavours to refute Mr Gram, and to demonstrate that no clear and incontestible proof can be produced that gunpowder was used in Europe before the year 1354. This dissertation is inserted in the *New Memoirs of the Academy of Copenhagen*, Vol. I.

†††The authors, of the *General History of Languedoc*, Vol. IV. Proofs, page 201, produce a quittance given in 1345 to the treasury of the domain of the sénéchaussée of Thoulouse for arms, made by one of the King's armourers. Among these arms we find

powder, and the first cannons. The same year the city of Louvain employed thirty-two cannons at the battle of Santfiet, against the Flemings.\* In 1361 there was a fire at Lubec, caused by the negligence of those who manufactured gunpowder.† In 1363, the Hans-towns made use of cannon for the first time in a naval battle which they

fought with the Danes.‡ In 1364, Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, besieging the castle of Preux, employed a piece of cannon of a new invention.§ After 1367 we find the use of this machine successively established in Italy, where it was introduced by the Germans.|| It is at the same epoch that Petrarch speaks in

and iron and leaden cannons, as well as gunpowder, for the use of these instruments. An extract from this quittance is as follows: "Noverent &c. quod Ramundus Arquerii, athilator Tolosæ. Dn. nostri Franciæ Regis, recognosco habuisse à provido viro Roberto d' Arthui regentis thesaurariam Tolosæ regiam ---- pro duobus canonibus ferri, CC plumbatis, VIII libris pulveris pro canonibus, CC cavillis pro eisdem canonibus ---- per me emptis de mandato D. Sen. Tol. et Albiensis pro garnitione castri de Suopodio (foran Sicopodio, Puy sec) siti in frontierâ inimicorum D. regis Franciæ et defensione ejusdem XXXVI. libras IX. sol. IV. den. Turon. de quibus etc. Datum Tolosæ sub meo sigillo die 29 April. A. D. MCCCXLV. One may judge of the scarcity of gunpowder at that time by the small provision here mentioned. This passage supports that of 1338, published by Du Cange, and we are no less tempted to believe that the cannon used at the siege of Eu, in 1340, was loaded with gunpowder. See Villaret Hist. de France, T. VI. page 103.

† They were called *Donder busen*. See *Harai Annales Brabant*, T. I. pag. 333, and *Mr. Des Roches Epitome Hist. Belg.* Part II. pag. 221.

‡ See the chronicle of Hermannus Cornerus, who wrote in the beginning of the fifteenth century, in the collection of Eccardus, *Corpus Hist. Medii ævi* Tom. II. pag. 1102.

§ See the *Chronica Danica*, published by Ludewig in his *Reliquiæ Manuscript.* Tom. IX. pag. 110. Mention is there made of a "bombarda, bellicum tormentum nuper inventum," which deprived Christopher, Prince of Denmark, of his life.

|| "Pontus Heuterus Rerum Burgund. Lib. II. Cap. I. pag. 18. (Territi (obsessi) tormento bombardæ, quo, tum temporis primum reperto, mænia magno cum strepitu ac terrore quatiebantur." After this, how can any one deny, with du Cange, that the cannon employed by the people of Ghent, at the siege of Oudenarde, was loaded with gunpowder. Froissart gives the following description of it, Vol. II. p. 102. "Ils firent ouvrir une bombarde, merveilleusement grande, laquelle avoit cinquante pies de long et gettoit pierres grandes, grosses et pesant merveilleusement: et quand celle bombarde decliquoit, on l'oyoit bien de cinque lieues loing par jour, et de dix par nuit: et menoit si grand noise au decliquer, qu'il sembloit que tout les dyables d'enfer fussent au chemin."

¶ See Felix Faber, an author of the fifteenth century, in his *Historia Suevorum*, L. I. c. 8. Goldast. Script. Rerum Suev. The Venetians employed for the first time cannons loaded with gunpowder in the war against Leopold, Duke of Austria, in 1376. See Andreas de Redusiis de Quero, in his *Chronique de Trevise*, written about the beginning of the fifteenth century, and inserted in *Muratori Script. Rerum Italic.* Vol. XIX. page 754. The reader will find there an ample description of these cannons, and the manner in which they were loaded. The author speaks also of bombardelles, or hand culverins, which the Venetians then made use of: "bombardella parva, quæ prima fuit visa, et audita in partibus Italiæ." We must not, however, confound these with muskets and fuses, which we find were not employed in war till the beginning of the sixteenth century. The Emperor Sigismund, in the year 1432, brought with him into Italy and Tuscany, a guard of five hundred men, armed with muskets and fuses. "Habebat Sigismundus," says Francis Thomasius in his history of Sienna, *Muratori*, Vol. XX. page 41. "militēs quingentos ad sui custodiam, scloppos (ita genus armorum vocant invivum apud nos antea) deterentes totidemque Hungaros, equites arcum gerentes." We find some of these German musqueteers or fuzileers appear afterwards at the siege of Sarno, in 1459. Gobelinus, in his commentaries of Pope Pius II. B. IV. pag. 104, gives the following description of these arms. "Instrumentum est sclopettum, in Germania primum hac demum ætate nostra repertum, ferreum seu cupreum, ad mensuram hominis longum, pugillaris spissitudinis, concavum fere totum, in cujus ore plumbea ponitur pila, ad magnitudinem nucis avellanæ, im-

"missio

in clear and expressive terms of cannon, which, he says, was then an invention entirely new, but already much in use.\*

It is, however, certain, that these new arms were introduced but very slowly into several kingdoms of Europe, and particularly France, either on account of long custom, which made them prefer the ancient warlike machines, or of the bad construction of the first cannon, and the scarcity or bad quality of the powder†; or, lastly, because they considered this invention as contrary to humanity, and calculated to degrade military bravery. The knights, above all, whose dexterity and science were confounded by fire-arms, did not fail

to oppose their being brought into use.

We may conclude, then, from this detail, that the opinion of those who consider the famous war of Chiozza, which continued between the Venetians and the Genoese, from 1378 to 1381, as the true epoch of the first use of gunpowder, to be entirely unworthy of notice, and that we ought to pay as little credit to the vulgar tradition, which ascribes the honour of this invention to one Berthold Schwartz. This tradition, indeed, is founded only on popular report, and authors are not even agreed respecting the name, the country, or the condition of this pretended inventor, or on the time and place where he made the discovery.||

\* misso prius pulvere, qui ex carbone fieri aut salicis conficitur, sulphure, et nitro com-  
 mixto, mox ignis per foramen parvum in posteriori parte adhibetur, qui, receptus a  
 pulvere tantam vim concipit ut pilulam instar fulminis jaciatur, in ejus exitu quasi  
 tonitru sonitus exauditur, quem vulgus scoppium appellat hinc scoppietarii appellant.  
 It may be easily perceived that these fuses had no locks. The invention of locks took place about the year 1517, when they were first made at Nuremberg. *Wagenfeil de Civit. Norimberg.* page 150. With regard to bombs and mortars, the invention of them in Europe, is ascribed to Sigismund Pandolphus Malatesta, Prince of Rimini, who died in 1467. Robert Valturius, in his work *De Re Militari*, addressed to that Prince, gives him the honour of it. "Inventum est quoque machinæ hujusce tuum, Sigismunde  
 Pandulphæ, quo pilæ æneæ, tormentarii pulveris plenæ, cum fungi aridi fomites  
 urentis emittuntur. See *Memoires de l'Academie des Belles Lettres*, Tom. XXVII.  
 † page 209." They were not used in France till the reign of Lewis XIII.

\* Petrarch speaks of cannon, in a work, entitled, *De Remedii utriusque Fortuna*, and addressed to Azzo de Corregio, in the ninety-ninth dialogue of the first book. His words are as follows: "Habeo machinas et balistas innumeras, R. mirum nisi et  
 glandes æneæ, quæ flammis injectis horrifono sonitu jaciuntur. Non erat satis  
 de cælo tonantis ira Dei immortalis, homuncio nisi (o crudelitas juncta superbie)  
 de terra etiam tonuisset, non imitabile fulmen, ut Maro ait, humana rabies imitata  
 est, et quod e nubibus mitti solet, ligneo quidem sed tartareo emittitur instrumento  
 . . . . . Erat hæc pestis nuper rara, ut cum ingenti miraculo carneretur, nunc ut  
 rerum pessimarum dociles sunt animi, ita communis est, ut unum quodlibet genus  
 armorum."

† The first cannon, according to Petrarch, were of wood, and the use of these was preserved even in the sixteenth century. See *Crusius Annal. Suev. L. X. P. III. p. 613*. The cannon of the Venetians, mentioned by *Andrew de Redufis*, were of iron. Those of the Duke of Brunswick, employed at the siege of Eimbec, in 1365, were of lead. See *Rohre Chron. Thuring.* in the *Scriptores de Menchen*, T. II. p. 1805. *Gustavi Adolphus* had cannons of leather.

‡ The cannons of that period would not have withstood gunpowder of an explosive force nearly equal to that of ours. See *Robins' New Principles of Gunnery.* page 20.

§ *Fauchet Origine des Dignites et Magistrats de France L. II. p. 122.*

|| See the learned and judicious dissertation of Mr. Gram on the antiquity and invention of gunpowder, in the ancient Memoirs of the Academy of Copenhagen. The oldest author who ascribes to Berthold Schwartz, whom he calls *Bertoldus Niger*, the invention of gunpowder, is Felix Malleolus, chanter of Zurich, who died 1456. This author refers the invention of gunpowder to the early part of the thirteenth century. See *Mr. Gram's Dissertation.*



EXPERIMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS ON THE DISSOLUTION OF METALS  
IN ACIDS, AND THEIR PRECIPITATIONS: WITH AN ACCOUNT OF  
A NEW COMPOUND ACID MENSTRUUM, USEFUL IN SOME TECHNICAL  
OPERATIONS OF PARTING METALS.

BY JAMES KEIR, ESQ; F. R. S.

**I**N the following paper I intend to relate two sets of experiments: one, shewing the effects of compounding the vitriolic and nitrous acids in dissolving metals: and the other, describing some curious appearances which occur in the precipitation of silver from its solution in nitrous acid by iron, and by some other substances.

PART I.

I. On the effects of compounding the vitriolic and nitrous acids, under various circumstances, upon the dissolution of metals.

On the mixture of oil of vitriol and nitre.

1. The properties of the several acids, in their separate states, have been investigated with considerable industry and success; and those of one compound, aqua regis, are well known, on account of its frequent use in dissolving gold; yet not only various other combinations of different acids remain to be examined, but also the changes of properties, to which these mixed acids are subject, from the difference of circumstances; especially those of concentration, temperature, and of that quality which is called, properly or improperly, phlogistication, are subjects still open for enquiry.

2. As I shall have frequent occasion to speak of the phlogistication and dephlogistication of acids, I wish to premise, that by these terms, I mean only certain states or qualities of those bodies, but without any theoretical reference. Thus vitriolic acid may be said to be phlogisticated by addition of sulphur or other inflammable matter, by which it is converted into sulphureous acid. Without determining whether this change be caused by the addition of the supposed principle, phlogiston, as one set of philosophers

believe, or by the action of the added inflammable substance, in drawing from the acid a portion of its aerial principle, by which the sulphur, its other element, is made to predominate, as others have lately maintained. It were much to be wished, that we had words totally unconnected with theory, that chymists, who differ from each other in some speculative points, might yet speak the same language, and might relate their facts and observations, without having our attention continually drawn aside from these to the different modes of explanation which have been imagined. But at present, we have only the choice of terms between words derived from the ancient theory, and those which have been lately proposed by the opposers of that theory. In this dilemma I have preferred the use of the former, not that I wish to shew any predilection to either theory, but because that system, having long been generally adopted, is understood by all parties; and principally because, by using the words of the old theory, I am at liberty to define them, and to give significations expressive merely of facts, and of the actual state of bodies; whereas the language and theory of the antiphlogistic chymists, being interwoven and adapted to each other, the former cannot be divested of its theoretical reference, and therefore seems inapplicable to the mere exposition of facts, but ought to be reserved solely for the explanation of the doctrines from which this language is derived. Thus by the definition which I have mentioned of phlogistication, this word expresses not the presence or existence of an hypothetical principle of inflammability, but a certain well known quality of acids and of other bodies, communicated to them by

the addition of many actual inflammable substances. Thus nitrous acid acquires a phlogificated quality by addition of a little spirit of wine, or by distillation with any inflammable substance.

3. No two substances are more frequently in the hands of chymists and artists than vitriolic acid and nitre; yet I have found, that a mere mixture of these, when much concentrated, possesses properties which neither the vitriolic acid, nor the nitrous, of the same degree of concentration, have singly, and which could not easily be reduced, *a priori*, by reasoning from our present knowledge of the theory of chymistry.

4. Having found by some previous trials that a mixture composed of nitre dissolved in oil of vitriol, was capable of dissolving silver easily and copiously, while it did not affect copper, iron, lead, regulus of cobalt, gold and platina, I conceived, that it might be useful in some cases of the parting of silver from copper, and the other metals above-mentioned; and having also observed, that the dissolving powers of the mixture of vitriolic and nitrous acids varied greatly in different degrees of concentration and phlogification, I thought that an investigation of these effects might be a subject fit for philosophical chymistry, and might tend to illustrate the theory of the dissolution of metals in acids. With these views, I made the following experiments.

5. I put into a long-necked retort, the contents of which, including the neck, were 1400 grain measures, 100 grain measures of oil of vitriol, of the usual density at which it is prepared in England; that is, whose specific gravity is to that of water as 1,844 to 1, and 100 grains of pure and clean nitre, which was then dissolved in the acid by the heat of a water-bath. To this mixture 100 grains of standard silver were added; the retort was set in a water-bath, in which the water was made to boil, and a pneumatic apparatus was applied to catch any air or gas which might be extricated.

The silver began to dissolve, and

the solution became of a purple or violet colour. No air was thrown into the inverted jar, excepting a little of the common air of the retort, by means of the expansion which it suffered from the heat of the water-bath, and from some nitrous fumes which appeared in the retort, and which, having afterwards condensed, occasioned the water to rise along the neck of the retort, and mix with the solution. The remaining silver was then separated and weighed, and it was found that 39 grains had been dissolved; but probably more would have been dissolved, if the operation had not been interrupted by the water rushing into the retort.

6. In the same apparatus 200 grains of standard silver were added to a mixture of 100 grains of nitre previously dissolved in 200 grain-measures of oil of vitriol; and in this solvent 92 grains of the silver were dissolved, without any production of air or gas. The solution, which was of a violet colour, having been poured out of the retort while warm, (for with so large a proportion of nitre, such mixtures, especially after having dissolved silver, are apt to congeal with small degrees of cold), in order to separate the undissolved silver from it, and having been returned into the retort without this silver, I poured 200 grains of water into the retort, upon which a strong effervescence took place between the solution and the water, and 3100 grain-measures of nitrous gas were thrown into the inverted jar. Upon pouring 200 grains more of water into the retort, 600 grain-measures of the same gas were expelled. Further additions of water yielded no more gas; neither did the silver, when afterwards added to this diluted solution, give any sensible effervescence, or suffer a greater loss of weight than two grains.

7. In the same apparatus 100 grains of standard silver were exposed to a mixture of 30 grains of nitre, dissolved in 200 grain-measures of oil of vitriol; and in this operation, 80 grains of silver were dissolved, while at the same time 4500 grain-measures of nitrous

nitrous gas were thrown into the inverted jar. When the undissolved silver was removed, 200 grains of water were added to the solution, which was of a violet colour, and upon a mixture of the two fluids an effervescence happened: but only a few bubbles of nitrous gas were then expelled.

8. In the same apparatus, 100 grains of standard silver were exposed to a mixture of 200 grain-measures of oil of vitriol, 200 grains of nitre, and 200 grains of water; and in this operation, 20 grains of the silver were dissolved without any sensible emission of air or gas.

9. In these experiments, the copper contained in the standard silver, gave a reddish colour to the saline mass which was formed in the solution, and seemed to be a calx of copper interspersed through the salt of silver. I perceived no other difference between the effects of pure and standard silver dissolved in this acid.

10. I then exposed tin to the same mixture of oil of vitriol and nitre, in the same apparatus, and in the same circumstances, taking care always to add more metal than could be dissolved; that by weighing the remainder, the quantity capable of being dissolved might be found, as I had done with the experiments on silver: and the results were as follow;

11. No tin was dissolved nor calcined by the mixtures in the proportion of 200 grain-measures of oil of vitriol to 200 grains of nitre; nor by another mixture, in the proportion of 200 grain-measures of oil of vitriol to 150 grains of nitre, and consequently no gas was produced in either instance.

12. With a mixture in the proportion of 200 grain-measures of oil of vitriol, and 100 grains of nitre, the tin began soon to be acted on, and to be dissolved through the liquor; but no extrication of gas appeared until the digestion had been continued two hours in boiling water; and then it took place, and gave a frothy appearance to the mixture, which was of an opaque white colour, from the powder of tin calcined was 73 grains, and the

quantity of nitrous gas extricated during this action on the tin, was 8500 grain-measures. Then, upon pouring 200 grains of water into the retort, a fresh effervescence took place between the water and the white opaque mass, and 4600 grain-measures of nitrous gas were thrown into the inverted receiver.

13. With a mixture in the proportion of 100 grain-measures of oil of vitriol to 30 grains of nitre, 30 grains of tin were dissolved or calcined, and the nitrous gas, which began to be extricated much sooner than in the last mentioned experiment, with a larger proportion of nitre, amounted to 6300 grain-measures. Water added to this solution of tin, did not produce any effervescence.

14. With a mixture in the proportion of 200 grain-measures of oil of vitriol, 200 grains of nitre, and 200 grains of water, 133 grains of tin were acted on, with an effervescence, which took place violently, and produced 6500 grain-measures of nitrous gas.

15. The several mixtures above-mentioned, in different proportions of nitre and oil of vitriol, did, by the help of the heat of the water-bath, calcine mercury into a white or greyish powder. Nickel was also partly calcined, and partly dissolved by these mixtures. I did not perceive that any other metal was affected by them, excepting that the surfaces of some of them were tarnished.

16. These mixtures of oil of vitriol and nitre, were apt to congeal by cold, those especially, which had a large proportion of nitre. Thus, a mixture of 1000 grain-measures of oil of vitriol and 480 grains of nitre, after having kept fluid several days, in a phial not so accurately stopped as to prevent altogether the escape of some white fumes, congealed at the temperature of 55 of Fahrenheit's thermometer; whereas some of the same liquid, having been mixed with equal parts of oil of vitriol, did not congeal with a less cold than 45°. The congelation is promoted by exposure to

air, by which white fumes rise, & moisture may be absorbed, or by any other mode of slight dilution with water.

17. Dilution of this compound acid, with more or less water, alters considerably its properties, with regard to its action on metals. Thus it has been observed, that in its concentrated state, it does not act on iron; but, by adding water, it acquires a power of acting on that metal, and with different effect, according to the proportion of the water added. Thus, by adding to two measures of the compound acid, one measure of water, the

liquor is rendered capable of calcining iron, and forming with it a white powder, but without effervescence. With a larger proportion of water the iron gave also a brown colour to the liquor, such as phlogisticated nitrous acid acquires from iron, or communicates to a solution of martial vitriol in water.

18. Dilution with water renders this compound acid capable of dissolving copper and zinc, and probably those other metals which are subject to the action of the dilute vitriolic or nitrous acids.

(*To be continued.*)

## ACCOUNT OF THE CABINETS OF NATURAL HISTORY IN PARIS.

FROM TOWNSEND'S TRAVELS.

THE royal cabinet is delightfully situated at the entrance of the botanical garden. The Count de Buffon being exceedingly infirm, I saw this cabinet with Monsieur Daubenton, who shewed me every possible attention. From the animal kingdom, as I imagine, no collection is equal to this. In this part of natural history M. de Buffon certainly excelled.

The minerals are very numerous, but much inferior to those which are in private cabinets. There are, indeed, large masses of gold and silver, but I cannot say that they appear to me well chosen.

The crystallized diamonds are fine, more valuable to the naturalist than to the jeweller.

The aqua-marine crystals are very large. The emeralds from Peru are large and clear: some are single crystals, with hexædral prisms; others form a group, or druse.

Of tin, there is one large crystal from Bohemia; but few good specimens besides.

The spathous iron, with silver, from Begori, in Dauphiné, is worthy of attention.

The spathous lead ore, in fine needles, from the Hartz, is truly elegant.

Of copper, the chief and most va-

luable specimens are the malachites from Siberia, of which some specimens are highly polished.

The antimony in long needles, with heavy spar, from Bohemia, is superb.

The sulphur, in large octædral crystals, is said to be from Catalonia; but, as I apprehend, it is from Conil mine, near Cadiz.

They have here, as in all the other cabinets of Paris, large dodecadral garnets, uniformly incrustated with green talc, from the duchy of Soria. These garnets, when the crust is taken off, appear to have been formed in the talc as in its proper matrix. Among the fossils, the most striking are, a nautilus, near three feet in diameter. Elephant's thigh-bone, from the vicinity of the Ohio, in Canada.

I remember to have seen, in Mr. Catcott's cabinet, in Bristol, part of an elephant, and a monkey, both found in the stone quarries near Bath.

The ferns, which are found on the coal mines in Wales, with the corals of St. Vincent's rock, near Bristol, are, like the monkeys and the elephants, the natural produce of the East Indies, or of the torrid zone.

Various are the solutions of this phenomenon,

phenomenon, given to the world by Catcott, Buffon, De Luc, Whitehurst, Hutton, and Saussure, beside many others, prior to these, not worthy to be named; but none of these are perfectly agreeable to truth, and to the appearances in nature, although every one of them states some valuable facts, more especially De Luc, who leaves all the others far behind him.

If ever a consistent history of the earth, and of its mutations, sees the light, we shall probably be indebted for it to a gentleman who has been with peculiar advantages studying the subject more than thirty years, and from whom, indeed, have been derived most of the useful hints on which our best modern authors have built their systems. His account of ancient castles has been justly admired by all men of learning; but, should he live to indulge the world with the true history of the earth, and of the changes which it has undergone, this will eclipse all his other works, and convince the most incredulous, at least as far as he enters on the subject, that nature and revelation perfectly agree.

After having visited the King's cabinet, I went round to the other principal cabinets in Paris.

M. d'Orcy, a farmer-general, in the Place Vendome, has two apartments, one for reptiles, the other for minerals.

His minerals are numerous, large, and elegant.

Of gold, he has only two fine specimens. Of the other metals, the principal are, copper in blue crystals, with copper blossom and green feathered ore.

Tin crystals, from Wheal Trevanance, in Cornwall, and one large crystal from Bohemia.

Lead ore, white, green, and white mixed with copper blue, from the Bannat of Temeswar.

Iron hæmatites in all its forms, a rich variety.

Blended with bright yellow pellucid crystals, elegant and rare.

Antimony in long coloured needles,

permeating rhomboidal crystals of heavy spar.

The cabinet of Monsieur de Romé de l'Isle, Rue des Bons Garçons, presents a most interesting system of crystallization.

M. de la Bove, Rue des Champs Elizes, who is Intendant of Dauphine, has a collection of minerals somewhat similar to that of M. d'Orcy, but chosen with more taste, and consisting of smaller specimens. He excels in the productions of his own province, more especially in Schoerl, violet, green, and white, all crystallized and blended together in the same stone with asbestos.

M. Aubert, coachmaker to the King, in the Fauxbourgh St. Denis, has a collection of minerals more beautiful, and in higher preservation, than any of the former; for which, if I mistake not, he has been much indebted to Mr. Foster, of Covent Garden, London, through whose hands have passed a great proportion of the finest specimens of minerals in Europe.

M. de Joubert, Treasurer of Languedoc, Place Vendome, has a well-digested cabinet of minerals and fossils, arranged by M. Sage. The specimens are good, many of them elegant, but their peculiar reference is to the sciences.

The Duke de la Rochefoucault has two spacious apartments, beside two little chambers, filled with minerals, arranged, not according to their genera and species, but according to the countries from which they came. Of these multitudes are duplicates; some good, some bad; some whole, some miserably broken; but all covered with dust. The most distinguished specimens are, a large mass of sulphur with octædral crystals, from Conil, in Spain; a beautiful specimen of malachites, of a considerable size, and highly polished; with antimony in large crystals. But that which is singular to this collection is a clear rock crystal, with a beautiful sprig of quartz, white like enamel, shooting in the midst of it.

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The Duke has few varieties of tin or copper.

His calcedony and agate, from Auvergne, are most interesting, as being the production of volcanos long since extinguished in that province.

The Abbé Hauy, of the Royal Academy, has a collection of crystals which is worthy of attention. He demonstrates that all crystals, of whatever size or form, are composed of primitive, minute, and elementary crystals; and that most of them, by proper fractures, may be reduced from the complex to the simple and elementary form. In the course of my visit I saw him, with a blunt-knife, bring back a mis-shapen mass of fluor to an octædral crystal; nor would it readily assume any other form. This discovery he made by accident; for, observing that the angle of a fractured hexagonal prism of calcareous spar was the same as of the rhomboidal, he was led to try the other parts of the crystal. By these means he found that the whole was in lamellæ of perfect rhombs, breaking easily, and only on their proper surfaces, and yielding rhomboidal crystals. He is now pursuing this discovery on the other crystallized substances; obtaining the primitive or elementary form, sometimes by heating, and quenching them in water; at other times, by breaking the rude mass, or compound crystal, with a hammer; varying his operations according to the nature of the substance. He is deeply versed in the mathematics, of which he has availed himself in this research. The simplicity of his manners is most engaging. This discovery beautifully illustrates the ingenious observations of De Romé de l'Île on the elementary and compound forms of crystals, and throws much light on this branch of natural history.

M. Hauffratz, Engineer of the Royal Mines, and Professor in the newly instituted Academy of Mining, has a few well chosen minerals, which are chiefly valuable, as being of his own collecting in the way of his profession. It is difficult to say whether

he most excels in chymistry or mineralogy, for he is eminent in both. M. Besson, Rue St. Honore, has the most elegant and the most systematical collection of minerals I ever saw, beautiful as Mr. Foster's, and classed nearly upon the same plan with the Honourable Mr. Charles Greville's. In his collection of flint, from its most rude appearance, to what, for beauty, we should call its most perfect species; with all the varieties, in the most natural and methodical arrangement. The same outline he pursues in all mineral and metallic substances; tracing them through all their appearances and forms, from those that are elementary, to those which are most compounded; and shewing their mineral, not merely in all its matrices, but in all its combinations. In no cabinet did I ever see beauty and science so happily united. Part of this wonderful collection is not yet arranged for want of room, but chiefly for want of money to purchase cabinets. It is much to be lamented that a man of his abilities, who has discovered such zeal, such indefatigable industry, in traversing the mountains, visiting the chief mines of Europe, and exploring their contents, should be distressed and straitened in his pursuit of science. But more is it to be admired that a man of his extensive knowledge should be hid, and, among all the great, among all the patrons of science, should find no protector.

M. Sage is Director of the Mint, and Principal of the Royal Academy for Miners.

When a man of science enters the spacious hall in which the minerals are kept, if he be not altogether destitute of taste, he will be at a loss which to admire most, the building itself, or its contents. The elegant simplicity of the painted dome, the surrounding gallery, with its pillars and pilasters, the whole covered with Italian stucco; the harmony and just proportion which every where prevail, and the disposition of the minerals, excite the most pleasing sensations

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of Delight. In this beautiful apartment, with much simplicity and taste, a recess is formed for the laboratory, where M. Sage exhibits his experiments when he is delivering his lectures to his pupils. In the centre of the hall an area is inclosed for them by a screen, which forms his cabinet for the reception of his minerals. In his collection his principal attention has been to science, and for that reason he has chosen specimens best suited to exhibit the metal, the matrix, its various combinations, and the acids by which it is mineralized, whether the sulphureous, the arsenical, or the phosphoric. Besides this classical collection, he has a provincial one in the gallery, where he has arranged the minerals according to the country from which they come. His method is both pleasing and improving. To complete the whole, he has deposited in a cabinet by themselves the produce of all the various minerals in his collection, the result of his most accurate assays. This inestimable treasure is designed for the use of students in the newly established Academy for Miners; an academy which, without distinction of nation or religious creed, is open to all the world. In this institution, as in all other establishments for extending the bounds of science, and diffusing knowledge freely and without expence among all ranks of people, we must admire the liberality of sentiment, the high spirit, and sense of dignity, which has distinguished the Sovereigns of France.

M. Sage is the Principal and Father of this royal academy, and at the same time the Chymical Professor. Besides himself there are four Principal Professors, whose stipend is two thousand four hundred livres each (or one hundred pounds sterling) per annum. There are five Inspectors, each at three thousand livres pension, fifteen hundred for travelling expences, and three hundred by way of gratuity, if their diligence deserves it: six Engineers, at six hundred livres pension; four hundred for journeys, and two hundred gratuitous: twelve Scholars,

at six hundred livres pension, and two hundred for gratuity; of these two are constantly travelling in Germany, with three thousand six hundred livres each for their expences. There are, besides, twenty Supernumeraries, or Expectants, without any pension.

The Inspectors and the Engineers visit all the mines of France, and make a report to Government; not merely of the produce, but of the management, together with such observations as they may think needful to communicate. They are likewise to be sent occasionally into foreign countries, to examine the improvements which are made in searching for and working mines. From this academy the mines of France will be supplied with skilful Engineers and Managers. All the members have a blue uniform, with M. R. on their buttons.

I was much surprized in most of the cabinets, and all the printed catalogues, at Paris, to see a substance which perhaps does not exist in nature—it is native tin. What they produce for such, appears dull and brittle: it is in fact nothing but tin returning to a calx. Whilst we smile at their credulity, we must lament that men of science should have been so easily deceived themselves, and, without intending to propagate a falsehood, should have deceived all those who have any dependence on their knowledge and veracity. For me, it was by no means difficult to detect the mistake; because every specimen of this supposed native tin came from my own cabinet, and went out from thence under the denomination of dephlogisticated tin. Of this large fragments, and even blocks, have been found in the moors near St. Austle, but never at any considerable depth, nor far distant from some old furnace or habitation, of which the tradition is, that they were in some remote period occupied by Jews. In the same places copper implements have likewise been found returning to a calx, some friable and red, others saturated with the basis of vital air, and therefore

therefore covered with malachites. This transmutation throws light on the red copper ore, with its octahedral crystals, found among the branchings

of native copper, in deep mines. The circumstances are different, but the operation of nature is the same in both.

ACCOUNT OF FOUR RUSSIAN SAILORS WHO WERE CAST UPON A DESERT ISLAND, NEAR EAST-SPITSBERGEN, IN 1743, AND WHO REMAINED THERE SIX YEARS.

**I**N the year 1743, Jeremiah Okladnikoff, a merchant of Mefen, a city in the province of Jugovia, belonging to the government of Archangel, fitted out a vessel, carrying fourteen men, in order to proceed to Spitzbergen, to the whale fishery.

For the first eight days after their departure, nothing material occurred; but on the ninth the wind changed, so that instead of being carried to West-Spitzbergen, they were driven towards the east, to a place called in the Russian language Maloybroun. The vessel having approached to within a few wersts of this island, was suddenly surrounded by ice. In this dismal situation, the crew held a council, to determine what method they should pursue to avoid the danger with which they were threatened. Alexis Himkoff, the chief mate, remembered to have heard that some inhabitants of Mefen, a few years before, had erected a hut at a little distance from the sea, and that they had there passed the winter. This information revived their drooping spirits, and they resolved to take shelter in this hut, until the sea should be clear of ice. The council, therefore, appointed four persons to go in search of that asylum, or to devise some means of saving the crew, whose ruin was inevitable, should the ice, as there was every reason to suppose, continue to impede their navigation, and oblige them to remain in the vessel. The deputies were, the chief mate, with his godson, Stephen Schazapoff, and Theodore Weragin. As the island on which they proposed to land was entirely desert, they provided themselves with every thing that they thought might be necessary

for them during their researches. They had nearly three wersts to traverse on a bridge of floating ice, which, being agitated by the wind and the waves, rendered the passage both difficult and dangerous. On this account they took great care not to encumber themselves with heavy burdens; they carried with them only a fusée, twelve rounds of powder and ball, a hatchet, a small saucepan, about twelve pounds of meal, a knife, a tinder-box, a bladder filled with tobacco, and a pipe for each.

Having reached the land in safety, they traversed the island, and discovered the hut, which was situated at the distance of about an English mile from the shore. It was thirty-six feet in length, eighteen in height, nearly as much in breadth, and had before it a kind of anti-chamber, twelve feet wide. Though this habitation had sustained considerable injury from the hand of time, they were under the necessity of passing the night in it. Next morning, as soon as day appeared, they hastened towards the sea side, to communicate their happy discovery to their companions, and to assist them to land such provisions and utensils as might be useful to them during their residence in the island; but when they arrived at the place where they had come on shore, they found, with equal grief and surprise, that the sea had swept away the ice, and that their vessel had disappeared entirely. A violent storm, which arose during the night, had broken the ice, and probably sunk the vessel, as they never after heard any accounts either of it or the remainder of the crew.

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so these unhappy people, who had now no hopes of ever seeing their country again, was to return to their hut, and to shelter themselves, in the best manner they could, against the dangers and misery which threatened them on all sides. As the planks of their retreat were warped by the intensity of the cold, they repaired this damage; and where it was impossible to join them, they stopped up the crevices with moss, which they found in abundance every where around. These reparations were attended with the less difficulty, as every peasant in Russia can manage a hatchet, and construct his own habitation. Their next employment was to procure provision. With the twelve rounds of powder and ball which they had brought along with them, they killed the same number of rein-deer; and these supplied them with food for a considerable time. As the excessive cold, which in these climates suffers no species of animals to live except a few, and destroys vegetation also, they saw neither trees nor bushes of any kind whatever. To withstand intense cold without fire appeared to be impossible, and no inflammable substance was to be found which could be substituted in the room of wood. Whilst their minds were agitated by these dismal reflections, they perceived, as they walked along the shore, some wrecks of their vessel, and a few roots of trees, which furnished them with an ample supply of fuel.

Among the remains of their vessel, cast on shore by the kindness of the sea, there were several planks, in one of which they found a large iron hook, some nails, five or six inches in length, and other pieces of old iron, which they considered as a very valuable acquisition. Their powder, however, being soon wasted, and their provisions nearly consumed, these unfortunate people saw death fast approaching. In this distressful situation they made another discovery, which proved of no less utility. Having dug up, with a piece of old iron, a long root, which was strong, and

bent by nature almost into the form of a bow, they employed themselves in finishing this instrument by the help of their knife; but as they could procure neither a string nor arrows, they were contented with making a kind of lances, to defend themselves from the white bears, which are remarkably ferocious, and which they had every reason to dread.

While engaged in this business, a new difficulty occurred. As they had no hammer, it seemed impossible to make points to these lances: after several fruitless efforts, they resolved to convert the iron hook, which they had in their possession, into the head of a lance; they therefore made it red hot in the fire, gradually enlarged a hole which was in the middle of it by means of one of their nails, and with a large stone for an anvil, and a pair of rein-deer's horns for pincers, they formed a kind of handle to it. In this manner they forged and sharpened heads for two lances, which, with thongs made of rein-deer's hide, they fixed to poles, or branches of trees, cast on shore by the sea. With these rude arms they attacked a white bear, which they killed, after a most obstinate and dangerous conflict. The flesh of this animal, which they thought exceedingly good, and which seemed to taste somewhat like beef, furnished them with a supply of fresh provisions.

Observing that the tendons of the white bear could be easily divided into very fine filaments, they concluded that they could make strings of them for their bows; they therefore immediately set about forging heads for their arrows, which they fixed to them by means of these filaments; and the more delicate threads served to fasten to the other end the feathers of some sea fowls which they had picked up. Having thus provided offensive weapons, they killed with them two hundred and fifty rein-deer, and a great number of blue and white foxes. The flesh of these animals supplied them with food, and their skins they converted into clothes, &c.

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Their expeditions against the white bears were not so successful; they killed only ten, and they could not procure even these without exposing their lives to the most imminent danger. The first of these they attacked; but they killed the other nine in their own defence. Though some of these animals were so bold as to fall upon them in their hut, they did not seem to be all equally inclined to carnage: whether it was that they were not so much pinched by hunger, or less ferocious by nature. When they had once entered the hut, they thought only of retreating, without attempting to make any resistance.

These combats, however, often repeated, fatigued these unhappy people very much, and they imagined every moment that they should be devoured.

In the centre of the island they found a kind of viscous earth, of which they made lamps; for the obscurity that prevailed around them rendered their abode exceedingly dismal. These lamps they filled with rein-deer's grease, instead of oil, and supplied the place of wicks with some old rags: but unfortunately the grease, when it melted, oozed through the bottoms of their earthen vessels. They however formed another lamp, which they first dried in the open air, and having made it red hot in the fire, plunged it, while in that condition, into a pot in which they had boiled water and meal to the consistence of pitch. This expedient was attended with the desired effect; the grease no longer filtered through the bottom of the lamp; but, for the greater security, they mixed with their plaster some filaments of linen, and again daubed over the outside of the lamp with this kind of cement. They likewise fabricated another, lest the first should happen to break, and reserved the remainder of their meal to daub over as many lamps as they might have occasion for in future. As they had taken great care to collect all the oakum cast on shore by the sea, they employed this substance for matches;

and when that was consumed, they used pieces of their shirts and trousers; so that their lamp had a constant supply, and was never suffered to be extinguished.

They, however, soon began to experience other wants, which threatened to expose them to great hardships: they had neither shirts, trousers, nor shoes; their clothes were almost wasted to rags; and winter, which was approaching, seemed to admonish them to make some preparation against the severity of the cold. They had the skins of two rein-deer, and abundance of those of foxes; but it was necessary to fall upon some method of preparing them, which embarrassed them not a little. After a great many reflections, they resolved to give their skins a kind of tanning, and for that purpose they steeped those of the rein-deer in fresh water for several days, until the hair easily came off; after which they rubbed them with great care until they were perfectly dry; they then spread over them a little rein-deer's grease, and again rubbed them, until the grease penetrated the leather, which now became soft and pliable, and fit for the purposes for which they intended it. Such skins as they destined for making cloaks they steeped only one day in fresh water, and finished the preparation of them in the same manner as before: a piece of wire supplied the place of a needle, and they employed the tendons of the rein-deer as thread.

In this manner did these unhappy people surmount by their industry discouraging obstacles without number, which absolute want of every necessary, and the severity of the climate, threw in the way of their preservation. Had animal life been sufficient for man, they could wish for nothing more; but to be abandoned by the whole world, without any hopes of relief, or of returning to their native country, excited the most dismal ideas in their minds, and still added to the horror of their situation.

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continual torment to them. Supported by hope, that great cheerer of the human heart, they banished them during the first years of their exile; but in the latter part of it, they recurred with redoubled force. Alexis Himkoff, above all, never ceased to deplore his dismal condition. Being a husband and a father, the melancholy situation of his wife and his children was always present to his distracted mind. In such a fatal situation, what strength of reason was sufficient to afford him the least consolation? Their prospect into futurity was still more terrible: they beheld in imagination the last amongst them, after having closed the eyes of his unfortunate companions, while bent under a load of years, devoured by wild beasts, and heard the vast solitude around them resound with his cries and lamentations.

Theodore Weragin fell into a lingering disorder, and suffered the most excruciating torture. His companions, dividing their attention between the wants of his situation, and the care due to their common safety, had the mortification of beholding the extreme misery to which they were reduced, while they could hope for no assistance either from art or nature. The situation of their comrade was a presage of what they had to expect from those disorders which threatened to attack them. Weragin, deprived of every thing, sunk under his load of evils. His companions lamented him as one of their defenders, as a friend subjected to the same misfortunes, and who, by sharing in their miseries, had in some measure diminished them. He died in the winter which preceded their return, and was buried as deep in the snow as possible, in order that his body might be protected from the voracity of the white bears.

But let us leave these scenes of horror, and turn to others of a more pleasing nature. These unhappy people, at length, saw hopes of a deliverance. On the 15th of August, 1749, a Russian vessel appeared in sight. They

now kindled fires on the neighbouring hills, hastened towards the shore, and waved in the air a rein-deer's skin, fixed to the end of a long pole, instead of a flag. When the vessel approached the shore, the captain took them on board, and they promised to pay him eighty rubles for their passage.

Having got on board all their riches, which consisted of two thousand pounds weight of rein-deer's grease, a quantity of skins of different animals, such as bears and foxes, together with their lances, bows, arrows, their needle, knife, and hatchet, which was almost worn out, they quitted their solitary habitation, and arrived safe at Archangel on the 28th of September, 1749, having remained in that dreary abode six years and three months. The wife of Alexis Himkoff happening to be on the shore when the vessel arrived, she immediately knew her husband, and ran to meet him with so much eagerness, that she fell into the sea, and was with difficulty saved. The ship which had delivered these unfortunate people was destined to winter at Nova Zembla, but the director of the whale-fishery proposed to the crew to pass that season at West Spitzbergen, and contrary winds had driven them on the coast of East Spitzbergen. These three persons had lived so long without bread, that they could no longer make use of it, and the case was the same with regard to spirituous liquors which they could not drink: pure water was always their only beverage.

The truth of this relation is confirmed by the testimony of several people worthy of credit. Mr. Klinstadt, chief auditor of the admiralty at Archangel, interrogated these sailors separately on their arrival in that city, and having committed their answers to paper, found them to correspond in every particular. A little while after Mr. Le Roy, professor of history in the Imperial academy of Petersburg, sent for two

of them, and upon examining them very closely, found their account to agree perfectly with the former.

Spitzbergen is the most northerly country of the arctic polar regions hitherto known. It extends from the sixty-sixth to the eightieth degree of latitude, and was discovered by the Dutch in 1596. The cold here is remarkably intense, and the air extremely sharp and cutting. In summer the sun continues more than six weeks above the horizon, which occasions continual day; but his rays have so little force, that the severity of the cold, even in that season, is very little diminished.

This country is inhabited only by white bears, as large and strong as oxen, which live upon the ice; by foxes of different colours, and reindeer, which feed upon a pale green kind of moss, that grows on the sand and the stones. These animals are extremely meagre when the snow lies deep on the ground, but as soon as it begins to melt they become exceedingly fat.

The soil produces neither trees nor shrubs, yet those who go thither to the whale fishery find large quantities of wood, cast on shore at every tide. It seems difficult to explain whence it comes, but it is to be found in the like manner upon all the northern coasts.

Wild ducks, and a small number of other fowls, are found here also. There are no small fish, except that species of cod known, when dried, by the name of stock-fish, and even these are in small quantity.

This coast is frequented every year by vessels of different nations, which go thither to the whale fishery. The people of each country have their particular post, or place of station; their huts, cauldrons, and other instruments necessary for extracting oil from the whales, and these they leave there till the year following, when the season obliges them to quit the country.

A whale produces from sixty to an hundred barrels of oil, which is sold for three or four pounds sterling per barrel,

VOYAGE FROM ACAPULCO TO MANILLA, BEING PART OF A VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD, BY PAGES, CAPTAIN IN THE FRENCH NAVY, KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF ST. LOUIS, AND CORRESPONDENT OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

(Continued from Page 118.)

THE sides of this vessel being too low for the open sea, were raised by means of leaves, supported by bamboos, and well sewed together. The mast was a split bamboo, the two bottom parts fastened to the two sides of the vessel, and joined at the top, serving both for mast and shroud. The sail was made of the leaves of the same tree, coarsely sewed together, the anchor was formed of the branch of a tree. Three Indians and myself formed the whole company of this kind of embarkation.

I was surpris'd at finding myself in such a situation; every thing belonging to this vessel manifested the little knowledge and advance these

people had made in naval architecture, and I knew not whether I ought most to admire or to fear the simple industry of these men. I dismissed these ideas, for fear of finding them disagreeable. We stood out into the ocean, to the westward, to fall in with a point of an island we saw before us, at the distance of two leagues. A storm arose, which ended in so heavy a rain, that it filled our vessel. We were obliged to heave out the water, and got clear of it, after being well wetted. We went very fast, and soon came up to the point.

We found here many other prod, and a great number of Indians, who, like us, had put in there. Some of them

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them had taken off their shirts, to keep them from being wet, and had rolled their large breeches up to their waists, where they had folded them in: others were dressed in a kind of bodice, which began under their arms, and reached down to the middle of the thigh. Over this, they had a cloak, which covered the shoulders and arms, the whole being formed of many rows of little cloths, made from the fibres of the cocoa trees, which is wove by nature, and is found on the body of those trees between the branches. The brown contour, the coarseness of the stuff, and the successive arrangement of the pieces one above the other, gave those who wore this dress a very rustic appearance. Their heads were covered with a kind of scale, a little convex, made of the leaves of a tree called nipe, and secured by the stalks round a hoop, of three feet diameter, the leaves are all joined in the centre by their points. A round band, made of the bark of the same, and fastened at the lower part of this scale, formed the crown of this kind of hat. All these Indians were armed with a kind of cutlasses, with a serpentine blade, called *eris*, or *crampelan*, and with a long wooden shield, so shaped as to cover the whole body. Behind this shield, they twine their bodies into an hundred different attitudes, to avoid the strokes of their enemies in battle; of which they gave us a representation. They make their attacks and retreats with cries and singular leaps. They seemed transported with joy at the noise of a tempest, and the shouts they sent forth, when the clouds met and emitted lightning and claps of thunder were frightful. I viewed all this from under a rock, where I had taken my station, to be sheltered from the rain: and was struck with astonishment at the manners of a people who were so strange to me, and of whose language I was entirely ignorant. I knew not to what to attribute these transports. Were they the effects of joy? Was it rodomontade, true cou-

rage, gaiety, or levity? I attributed it to the two latter emotions, and I was pleased to think it was so, for my own sake. The distrust I had entertained of those on board, where they would not permit many Indians to come near; what I had heard of their connections with the Mahometans, and with the barbarous people in the middle of the island, came into my mind. I began to fear that I was with some of those Indians who do not inhabit any villages, and are not under the dominion of the Spaniards; and the more so, as they did not appear to trouble themselves about me. Soon after there came some Indians, who were better made, who regarded me attentively, and afterwards offered me some rice to eat. I did not refuse it, as I had too much occasion for friends in this my new situation; my mind was in a state which I could not account for. They had dressed this rice in a bamboo, which was pierced like a cullender. After they had stopped up the ends, they put it into another bamboo, much larger, and full of water, this they also stopped, and then put it under some ashes, or light charcoal. The water in the last bamboo was imbibed by the rice in the first, and the fire could not burn the outer one, on account of the humidity communicated to it by the water. They had made a fire by rubbing two bamboos together with great quickness. As soon as the rain ceased, we quitted this desert island, my short stay on which appeared to me like a fairy tale.

Going still to the westward, we passed through a channel, formed by this island and another near it. I saw many proas going backward and forward, occasioned by the vicinity of the galleon, but I did not perceive the least mark of habitation or cultivation. We passed into the open sea through a narrow passage, formed by the two points of these islands, and ran along the shore of that to the right of us. We were obliged to keep a good offing, on account of the rocks, over which were breakers, and yet

yet we were fearful of standing too far out to sea, on account of the smallness and weakness of our vessel. This alternative made us run rather too close to the rocks, and put us into great danger, from the seas which broke over them.

At last we doubled a point, and through the openings between the trees, I saw a village, called Lawan. It had a kind of fort on an eminence by the sea side, where also was the church and convent. The houses of the Indians were scattered about in the wood, which, by the great fertility of the soil, was rendered too thick and close. I compared these houses to cages, as they were square and composed of bamboos, either crossed like lattice work, or else upright, with openings between them; the manner in which they stand elevated on pillars, and their shaking with the least motion of those within them, occasioned by the nature of the bamboos which support them, give them very much the appearance of cages.

Here we landed, and I went to wait on the priest, who was a Jesuit, as they all are in this island, who gave me a pretty good reception. I there ate some eggs of a bird called *tabon*, which are as large as those of a goose, but which are, however, laid by a bird not much larger than a dove. When the female of the *tabon* is going to lay her eggs, she digs a little cavern, deep and winding in the sand, and there lays her eggs; when she has done, she covers them with sand, closing up the hole as it was before.

The heat of the sun hatches those eggs, and the young birds make themselves a passage to the light, by scratching through the sand; but many of them perish, for instead of scratching upwards, they in the dark often proceed horizontally, and sometimes downwards, and being by this means prevented from reaching the surface, perish by hunger and fatigue.

We left Lawan at sun-set, to avail ourselves of the calm of the night, and running along the shore to the westward, steered for Catarmán. We went twelve leagues that night, my Indians being good rowers, and the proa going well. I had still some distrust of them, for although I did not understand their language, I understood that they were talking of me. One of them, under pretence of making me understand what he meant by gesticulations and signs, took the liberty to touch my clothes, and came pretty near the pockets. This familiarity, which, perhaps, my suspicions alone rendered ill-intentioned, did not please me; I knew not what to think of it, but I was possessed with a strong inclination to reach Manilla, and as I was willing to take the advantage of the only vessel which was going to the port of Canton, I risked every danger.

When I arrived at Catarmán, I found how much reason I had to be thankful to God, as I learned, that during the night, about the same hour, and near the same rocks that we had passed, the Mahometan corsairs had taken three proas, and made the people on board them slaves. This news had been brought by some persons, who had escaped in the darkness of the night by swimming. They also informed me, that the Indians who had brought me thither, belonged to the island of Capul, who, for a long time, had not had any communication with the Europeans, having neither priest or governor. They added, that the island served as an asylum to the Mahometans, whom they sometimes assisted in their piracies; perhaps it was for that reason that our proa did not share the fate of the others, and that the enemies knew their comrades.

I went to lodge with the priest, who was a Jesuit. He received me very well, but with some degree of pride. I saw he was fully employed in giving a kind of audiences, in which he settled the little differences among

the Indians concerned in the parish. attenders go into to report, lowed h out again door up the voice chamber ticular Jesuit. called who, by old pe their warm, ended this was tion, t The in and I v per tim know to talk of his religious, diction afterwa of his ments Cata of the signifies teen lea still eig of Luc but, fo ans of ragoa, tween luccos, carry m dino, v tion. of Cap ther, f specting me an Christi of these insect th and of carry c

the Indians, or such affairs as concerned the police and safety of the parish. At night, a little boy who attended him, came to desire me to go into an adjoining chamber, and to repose myself on a couch. I followed him, and as soon as he went out again he turned the key of the door upon me. Soon after I heard the voices of many people in the chamber I had just quitted, but particularly the tongue of the father Jesuit. He made an harangue, and called on several of the company, who, by their voices, I found to be old people, to give an account of their conduct. His speech grew warm, and the interrogation usually ended with the word *Mangateau*; this was followed by a severe flagellation, the strokes of which I heard. The inquisition occurred to my mind, and I was much surprized. At supper time I was very inquisitive to know of him, after he had begun to talk to me, about the functions of his office, if they were wholly religious, or if he had any civil jurisdiction? He assured me, and I was afterwards convinced by the rectitude of his conduct, that these punishments were for civil offences.

Catarman, which, in the language of the Indians of Samar, or Bissaye, signifies point or cape, was only fourteen leagues from Palapa, and I was still eight or ten leagues from the island of Luconia. I wanted to get there, but, for fear of the Mahometan Indians of Mindanao, Holo, Borneo, Paragoa, and other islands, situated between the Phillippines and the Moluccos, no person would venture to carry me to the strait of St. Bernardino, which is their principal station. I had parted from the Indians of Capul, who had brought me hither, for what I had learned respecting their island had not given me any confidence in them. The Christian Indians stand in great fear of these Mahometans, who constantly infect the coasts of the Bissaye islands and of Luconia. They come and carry off the inhabitants, even from

under the walls of Manilla, and that without any opposition from the Spanish government. Besides these obstacles, they exaggerated the difficulty of the journey by land from St. Bernardino to Manilla, which was one hundred and fifty leagues, through ways scarcely passable even for Indians, who are accustomed to wade through mud even up to their waists. The country also did not afford any beasts to ride on but buffaloes, and even they were not to be procured in some places. On the other hand, if I waited until the end of winter, for the departure of the galleon, I should miss the only vessel which would sail from Manilla to Canton, to which place I intended to go.

While I was making these reflections to myself, the guards, who were placed on the heights and head lands, gave notice by their *drum-clocks*, of the approach of the Moors. These *drum-clocks*, known to the Europeans by the name of *tomtom*, are made of metal, and are above six points thick; they are shaped like a tabor, but are concave on one side, and convex on the other. This instrument is held suspended, and they beat with a stick plated with metal on the convex side of the drum. The sound this instrument sends forth is loud, but a little hoarse and hollow. It is of such a construction, that it is not heard at a greater distance than four hundred paces; but within that distance it is heard more generally than our clocks, on account of its greater vibration. I was now obliged to give up my design of going to Manilla before the galleon, as I could not get any further, the Moors having made their appearance several times before the village. After some residence here, I went back to Palapa.

The crew of the galleon alone remained on board her, and I found the village, which may possibly consist of one hundred houses, filled with the passengers of that ship; the other houses in this parish are all scattered in the woods. However, I accommodated



dated myself very well, and my residence here was agreeable. This place, which is situated on a river of the same name, about two leagues from the sea, was now very lively, on account of the vicinity of the galleon, which had drawn thither the Indians from Catarman, Lawan, Catuby, Ubi, and other villages for twelve or fifteen leagues round. To the south of this place, opposite the isle of Leyte, is the chief town of Samar, called Cabalongua, which is the place of residence of the Spanish governor of these parts. He is commonly the only lay Spaniard in his government. Cabalongua has scarcely any other remarkable productions but a species of bean, called Beans of

St. Ignatius, and by the people of this country *Papitas de Cabalongua*. The houses of the Indians are built of bamboo, and the roofs and walls are covered with the leaves of the tree called *Nipe*. These leaves are doubled, and sewed on a little reed, and ranged in the manner of our slates. The lower part of the house is not inhabited, but at some distance from the ground they build a flooring of split bamboos, ranged crossways and close. These floors are sufficiently strong, and by the mode of construction, allow for the evaporation of the humidity of the earth, and a passage for the air, which makes the houses very wholesome.

(*To be continued.*)

#### AN HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE OF THE ENGLISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

(*Continued from page 115.*)

**A**MONG the prisoners who were seized in the ships at Lisbon, was one Cornelius Houtman, who, by making enquiries among the Portuguese seamen of the course they held in their Indian voyages, obtained essential information, but drew on himself the notice of the government, and had a fine laid on him, and for want of payment was imprisoned. To procure his discharge, he offered by letter to some merchants of Holland, to communicate his intelligence, if they would pay his fine. This was complied with, and Houtman returned to Holland, a company was established, anno 1595, under the title of the Company for remote Countries, and ships sent out, who procured an alliance with Java. Various other companies were formed, whose opposition hurt each other; till they were all united under one company; a charter was granted, with exclusive privileges, and a capital of 6,600,000 florins; which by successive renewals has continued to this time.

These were all the European nations who had attempted settlements

in India, before the English began to form their company. Other powers successively made attempts, and succeeded in procuring settlements.

The English gained their first knowledge of India by means of travellers. Cæsar Frederick had gone from Venice to Bassora and Ormus, and visited many parts of the sea coast, as far as Pegu, Newberry, and Fitch; had passed from Syria by way of Bassora, also to India, and Mr. Barratt, who was the English consul at Aleppo, had procured an account of the places where goods were shipped, and the proper seasons for navigating these seas. Jenkinson also had passed from Moscow to Boghar, and afterwards to Persia.

Mr. Thorn, a merchant of London, who had long resided at Seville, and there acquired some knowledge of the India trade, represented to Henry VIII. the advantages the kingdom might reap from that commerce. He proposed to open a passage by the north-west to Tartary, China, or Cathay. In 1576, some merchants of London, in expectation of reap-

ing a benefit out of two but that had been successful on his return the globe he received trade by Captain Guze from Good Hope from G voyage 1587, of by his v

In consequence of both a charter undertaken was pleased 1600, to charter porate, and Com trading

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ing a benefit from this discovery, fitted out two ships, under Captain Frobisher, but that gentleman, as his successors had been, was unsuccessful in three successive attempts. Sir Francis Drake, on his return from circumnavigating the globe, communicated to the public the most rational information yet received, and which gave birth to the trade by the direct course. In 1582 Captain Stephens sailed in a Portuguese ship to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, and sent a full account from Goa of what occurred in his voyage; and Captain Cavendish, in 1587, opened a passage from the East, by his voyage round the world.

In consequence of these lights, application was made to Queen Elizabeth by many rich merchants for a charter to empower them to undertake this trade, and her Majesty was pleased, on the 30th of December, 1600, to grant to several persons a charter constituting them a body corporate, by the name of *The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East-Indies*.

Queen Elizabeth constituted Thomas Smith, Alderman, of London, first Governor, with power to elect annually a governor and directors, each of which were to take an oath to execute his trust. Leave was granted this company, their successors, their sons, apprentices, factors, and servants employed by them, for fifteen years to traffic in any place or places beyond the Cape of Good Hope or streights of Magellan, not in the possession of any Christian prince; with power to make bye-laws, to inflict punishments by fine and imprisonment (provided such punishments were not contrary to the laws and statutes of England), and to export goods, for four years, free of duty; to export every voyage in bullion 30,000*l.* provided they brought that sum by their trade from foreign parts. The charter was exclusive, and all other subjects were forbid to trade thither under severe penalties. A proviso was added, if this monopoly

was found detrimental to the public, on two years notice it should become void, but if it appeared beneficial to the nation, her Majesty promised to renew the same, with additional privileges.\*

Whatever objections may now be raised to a monopoly of the trade to the East-Indies, at the time this charter was granted it might with propriety be deemed a measure of necessity; many reasons concurred to prevent the pursuit of it by private persons. The capital of the merchants was small, the trade was not yet attempted, and the power of the Portuguese was then at such a height in India as to deter any but a large body of people from adventuring.

Armed with the aforesaid privileges and powers, and assisted by a large subscription, the company, in 1601, fitted out five ships, the charge for which came to 45,000*l.* and their cargoes cost 27,000*l.* more. The command of this squadron was given to Captain James Lancaster, who had before made a voyage to India, as Captain of a cruiser, and was honoured with Queen Elizabeth's letter to the Indian princes. He arrived safe at Atcheen, negotiated a treaty with the King, by which the company were allowed free trade in his dominions, and some other privileges. At Bantam, Lancaster was equally well received, and having completed his business, he left a factory of nine persons on the island of Java, and returned with good profit to England.

It does not appear for certain, that any other voyage was undertaken, till Sir H. Middleton sailed, although a learned author (Camden) who wrote in the following reign says, the company dispatched a fleet to India every year. Sir Henry had four ships under his command, who found at Java the remains of the factory left there by Lancaster. They had experienced during their residence some opposition from the Hollanders, but had received marks of friendship from some individuals.

\* See Charter at large in Purchas.

duals of that nation. Middleton carried out letters and presents from King James, and was well received; the *Ascension*, one of his ships, was sent to the Moluccas; he soon dispatched two to England, and on the return of the *Ascension* sailed back himself. His success increased the jealousy of the Dutch, who used every mean art to prejudice him. Their writers accuse him of a partiality in favour of the Portuguese, with whom the Dutch were then at war, but a learned foreigner, (*Abbè Prevost*) who cannot be suspected of prejudice, has fully cleared him of this aspersion. This fleet brought back a rich and valuable cargo, with letters and presents from the Kings of Bantam and Tydore, to King James.

Before Middleton's return Sir Edward Mitchilburn and Captain Davis, in 1604, were sent with a fleet, which arrived at Bantam: the factory informed him of the arts of the Dutch, and the danger they stood in of being oppressed by force, if fraud would not prevail. On this notice Sir Edward weighed anchor, and steered directly

to the Dutch fleet; when sending a message to their Admiral, that if any methods were used to disturb the English factory, he would exert this power to avenge them, and sink the Dutch fleet, this declaration kept the Dutch quiet during his stay, which was short.

The voyages hitherto related were all to the islands, but in 1607 the company began to extend their commerce; two ships were this year sent to the Red-sea, but met with indifferent success, and a squadron sent under Captain Keeling, who proceeded himself with two ships to Bantam, and dispatched a pinnace to Banda; these all had great success in trade, and returned safe to England. One of the ships, the *Hector*, in her voyage out proceeded to Surat, where she landed her captain, Mr. Hawkins, who proceeded to the Mogul's court in a public character, and executed his commission with success, having obtained privileges from Genghas Kha. One remarkable circumstance attending this voyage was that the fleet did not lose a single man.

*To be continued.*)

## FRENCH CONSTITUTION,

AS PRESENTED BY THE COMMITTEES OF CONSTITUTION AND REVISION.

[ *Continued from page 137.* )

### CONNECTION OF THE LEGISLATIVE BODY WITH THE KING.

I. **W**HEN the legislative body is definitively constituted, it shall send a deputation to inform the King. The King may every year open the session, and propose the objects, which, during its continuance, he thinks ought to be taken into consideration; this form, however, is not to be considered as necessary to the activity of the legislative body.

II. When the legislative body wishes to adjourn longer than fifteen days, it is bound to inform the King, by a deputation, at least eight days previous to the adjournment.

III. Eight days, at least, before the end of each session, the legislative body shall send a deputation to the King, to announce to him the day on which it proposes to terminate its sittings: the King may come in order to close the session.

IV. If the King find it of importance to the welfare of the state, that the session be continued, or that the adjournment be put off, or take place only for a shorter time, he may send a message to this effect, on which the legislative body is bound to deliberate.

V. The King shall convoke the legislative body during the interval of

of its session, as often as the interest of the state shall appear to him to require it, as well as in those cases which the legislative body shall have foreseen and determined previous to their adjournment.

VI. Whenever the King shall visit the place of meeting of the legislative body, he shall be received and conducted back by a deputation; he cannot be accompanied into the inner part of the hall by any except ministers.

VII. The president can in no case form part of a deputation.

VIII. The legislative body shall cease to be a deliberating body, whilst the King shall be present.

IX. The acts of correspondence of the King with the legislative body, shall be always countersigned by a minister.

X. The ministers of the King shall have admission into the legislative national assembly—they shall have a particular place; they shall be heard on all the subjects on which they demand a hearing, and as often as they shall be called upon to give explanations.

#### OF THE EXERCISE OF THE EXECUTIVE POWER.

I. The supreme executive power resides exclusively in the hands of the King:

The King is the supreme head of the general administration of the kingdom; the care of watching over the maintenance of public order and tranquillity is entrusted to him:

The King is the supreme head of the land and sea forces:

To the King is delegated the care of watching over the exterior security of the kingdom, and of maintaining its rights and possessions.

II. The King names ambassadors, and the other agents of political negotiations;

He bestows the command of armies and fleets, and the ranks of marshal of France and admiral;

He names two-thirds of the rear-admirals, one-half of the lieutenant-generals, camp-marshals, captains of

ships, and colonels of the national gendarmerie;

He names a third of the colonels and lieutenant-colonels, and a sixth of the lieutenants of ships;

The whole in conformity to the laws with respect to promotion;

He appoints in the civil administration of the marine, the directors, the comptrollers, the treasurers of the arsenals, the masters of the works, the under-masters of civil buildings, half of the masters of administration, and of the under-masters of construction;

He appoints the commissaries of the tribunals;

He appoints the commissioners of the national treasury, and the superintendants in chief of the management of contributions indirect;

He superintends the coinage of money, and appoints the officers entrusted with this superintendence in the general commission, and the mints;

The effigy of the King is struck on all the coinage of the kingdom.

III. The King orders letters patent, brevets, and commissions to be delivered to all the public offices that ought to receive them.

IV. The King orders a list of pensions and gratifications to be made out, for the purpose of being presented to the legislative body each session.

#### OF THE PROMULGATION OF LAWS.

I. The executive power is entrusted with ordering the seal of state to be put to laws, and causing them to be promulgated.

II. Two copies of each law shall be made, both signed by the King, countersigned by the minister of justice, and sealed with the seal of state;

The one shall be deposited in the archives of the seal, and the other shall be sent to the archives of the legislative body.

III. The promulgation of laws shall be in these terms:

“ N. (the King's name) by the  
“ grace of God, and the constitu-  
“ tional law of the state, King of  
“ the French, to all present and to  
D d 2 “ come,

" come, greeting. The National Assembly has decreed, and we will and ordain as follows :

[Here a literal copy of the decree shall be inserted without any variation.]

" We command and ordain to all administrative bodies and courts of justice, to cause these presents to be transcribed on their registers, read, published, and posted up in their departments and respective places of resort, and executed as a law of the realm ; in witness of which we have signed these presents, to which we have caused the seal of the state to be put."

IV. If the King is a minor, laws, proclamations, and other acts proceeding from the royal authority during the regency, shall be conceived in these terms :

" N. (the name of the regent) regent of the kingdom, in the name of N. (the king's name) by the grace of God, and the constitutional law of the state, King of the French," &c.

V. The executive power is bound to send the laws to the administrative bodies and courts of justice, to see that they are so sent, and to answer for it to the legislative body.

VI. The executive power cannot make any law, not even provisional, but merely proclamations, conformable to the laws, to ordain or enforce the execution.

#### OF THE INTERIOR ADMINISTRATION.

I. There is in each department a superior administration, and in each district a subordinate administration.

II. The administrators have no character of representation ;

They are agents chosen for a time by the people, to exercise under their superintendence and the authority of the law, the administrative functions.

III. They can assume no authority over judicial proceedings, or over military dispositions and operations.

IV. It belongs to the legislative power to determine the extent and the rules of their functions,

V. The King has the right of annulling such acts of the administrators of department, as are contrary to the law, or the orders transmitted to them ;

He may, in case of obstinate disobedience, or of their endangering, by their acts, the safety or peace of the public, suspend them from their functions.

VI. The administrators of department have also the right of annulling the acts of sub-administrators of district, contrary to the laws or decrees of administrators of department, or to the orders which the latter shall have given or transmitted. They may likewise, in case of an obstinate disobedience on the part of the sub-administrators, or if the latter endanger, by their acts, the public safety or tranquillity, suspend them from their functions, with the reserve of informing the King, who may remove or confirm the suspension.

VII. The King, if the administrators of department shall not use the power which is delegated to them in the article above, may directly annul the acts of sub-administrators, and suspend them in the same cases.

VIII. Whenever the King shall pronounce or confirm the suspension of administrators, or sub-administrators, he shall inform the legislative body :

This body may either remove or confirm the suspension, or even dissolve the culpable administration ; and, if there is ground, remit all the administrators, or some of them, to the criminal tribunals, or enforce against them the decree of accusation.

#### OF EXTERIOR CONNECTIONS.

I. The King alone can interfere in foreign political connections, conduct negotiations, make preparations of war proportioned to those of the neighbouring states, distribute the land and sea forces as he shall judge most suitable, and regulate their direction in case of war.

II. Every declaration of war shall be made in these terms : *By the King of the French, in the name of the Nation.*

III. It



III. It belongs to the King to resolve and sign with all foreign powers, all treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce, and other conventions, which he shall judge necessary for the welfare of the state, with a reserve for the ratification of the legislative body.

OF THE JUDICIAL POWER.

I. The judicial power can in no case be exercised either by the legislative body or the King.

II. Justice shall be gratuitously rendered by judges chosen for a time by the people, instituted by letters patent of the King, and who cannot be deposed, except from a forfeiture duly judged, or suspended, except from an accusation admitted.

III. The tribunals cannot either interfere in the exercise of the legislative power, or suspend the execution of the laws, or undertake the administrative functions, or cite before them the administrators on account of their functions.

IV. No citizens can be withdrawn from the judges whom the law assigns to them by any commission, or by any other attributions or avocations than those which are determined by the laws.

V. The orders issued for executing the judgments of the tribunals shall be conceived in these terms:

"N. (the name of the King) by the grace of God, and by the constitutional law of the state, King of the French, to all present and to come, greeting: the tribunal of — has passed the following judgment:

[Here shall follow a copy of the judgment.]

"We charge and enjoin all officers upon the present demand, to put the same judgment into execution, to our commissioners of the tribunals to enforce the same, and to all the commanders and officers of the public force to be assisting with their force, when it shall be legally required: In witness of which the present judgment has been sealed and signed by the president

"of the tribunal, and by the Registrar."

VI. There shall be one or more judges of peace in the cantons and in the cities. The number shall be determined by the legislative power.

VII. It belongs to the legislative power to regulate the districts of tribunals, and the number of judges of which each tribunal shall be composed.

VIII. In criminal matters, no citizen can be judged, except on an accusation received by jurors, or decreed by the legislative body in the cases in which it belongs to it to prosecute the accusation:

After the accusation shall be admitted, the fact shall be examined, and declared by the jurors:

The accuser shall have the privilege of rejecting twenty:

The jurors who declare the fact, shall not be fewer than twelve:

The application of the law shall be made by all the judges:

The process shall be public:

No man acquitted by a legal jury, can be apprehended or accused on account of the same fact.

IX. For the whole kingdom there shall be one tribunal of appeal, established near the legislative body. Its functions shall be to pronounce,

On appeals from the judgment of the tribunals;

On appeals from the judgment of one tribunal to another, on lawful cause of suspicion:

On the regulations of judges, and exceptions to a whole tribunal.

X. The tribunal of appeal can never enter into an original examination of a case, but after annulling a judgment in a process in which the forms have been violated, or which shall contain an express contravention of law, it shall refer the merits of the case to the tribunal that ought to take cognizance of them.

XI. When after two appeals, the judgment of the third tribunal shall be questioned in the same way as that of the former two, the case shall not be carried again to the tribunal of appeal,

without

without being first submitted to the legislative body, which shall pass a decree declaratory of the law, to which the tribunal of appeal shall be bound to conform.

XII. The tribunal of appeal shall be bound to send every year to the bar of the legislative body, a deputation of eight of its members, to present a statement of the judgments given, with an abstract of the case annexed to each, and the text of the law, which was the ground of the decision.

XIII. A high national court, composed of members of the tribunal of appeal and high-jurors, shall take cognizance of the crimes of ministers, and the principal agents of the executive power, and of crimes which attack the general safety of the state, when the legislative body shall pass a decree of accusation :

It shall not assemble but on the proclamation of the legislative body.

XIV. The functions of the King's commissioners in the tribunals, shall be to require the observance of the laws in the judgments to be given, and to cause them to be executed after they are passed :

They shall not be public accusers ; but they shall be heard on all accusations, and shall require, during process, regularity of forms, and before judgment the application of the law.

XV. The King's commissioners in the tribunals shall represent to the director of the jury, either officially or according to orders given them by the King.

Offences against the individual liberty of citizens, against the free circulation of provisions, and the collection of contributions ;

Offences by which the execution of orders given by the King, in the exercise of the functions delegated to him, shall be disturbed or impeded ; and opposition to the execution of judgments, and all executive acts proceeding from established powers.

XVI. The minister of justice shall represent to the tribunal of appeal, by means of the King's commissioner, the

acts by which the judges have exceeded their jurisdiction.

The tribunal shall annul these acts, and if they give ground for forfeiture the fact shall be represented to the legislative body, which shall pass the decree of accusation, and refer the parties informed against to the high national court.

#### OF THE PUBLIC FORCE.

I. The public force is instituted to defend the state against external enemies ; and to maintain internal order and the execution of the laws.

II. It is composed

Of the land and sea force ;

Of the troops specially destined for home service ;

And, subsidiarily, of the active citizens, and their children of age to bear arms, registered in the roll of national guards.

III. The national guards do not form a military body, or an institution in the state ; they are the citizens themselves called to assist the public force.

IV. The citizens can never embody themselves, or act as national guards, but by virtue of a requisition, or a legal authority :

They are subject in this quality to an organization, to be determined by the law :

They shall be distinguished in the whole kingdom by only one form of discipline, and one uniform :

Distinctions of rank and subordination subsist only relatively to the service, and during its continuance.

VI. Officers are chosen for a time, and cannot again be chosen, till after a certain interval of service :

None shall command the national guard of more than one district.

VII. All the parts of the public force employed for the safety of the state from foreign enemies, are under the command of the king.

VIII. No body or detachment of troops of the line can act in the internal part of the kingdom, without a legal order.

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can be in the house of a citizen, if it is not in order to execute the instructions of police and of justice, or in cases formally provided for by the law.

X. The requisition of the public force in the internal part of the kingdom belongs to the civil officers, according to the regulations provided by the legislative power.

XI. When any department is in a state of commotion, the King shall issue, subject to the responsibility of ministers, the necessary orders for the execution of laws, and the re-establishment of order; but with the reserve of informing the legislative body, if it is assembled, and of convoking it if it be not sitting.

XII. The public force is essentially obedient: no person in arms can deliberate.

#### OF PUBLIC CONTRIBUTIONS.

I. Public contributions shall be debated and fixed every year by the legislative body, and cannot continue in force longer than the last day of the following session, if they are not expressly renewed.

II. The funds necessary to the discharge of the national debt, and the payment of the civil list, can under no pretext be refused or suspended.

III. The administrators of department, and sub-administrators, can neither establish any public contribution, nor make any distribution beyond the time and the sums fixed by the legislative body, nor deliberate, or permit, without being authorized by it, any local loan to be charged to the citizens of the department.

IV. The executive power directs and superintends the collection and paying in of contributions, and give the necessary orders to this effect.

#### OF THE CONNECTION OF THE FRENCH NATION WITH FOREIGN NATIONS.

The French nation renounces the undertaking of any war with a view of making conquests, and will never employ its forces against the liberty of any people.

The constitution no longer admits the Droit d'Aubaine.

Foreigners, whether settled in France or not, inherit the property of their parents, whether foreigners or Frenchmen. They can contract, acquire, and receive property situated in France, and dispose of it, as well as any French citizen, in every mode authorized by the laws.

Foreigners in France are subject to the same criminal laws and regulations of police, as French citizens: their persons, effects, industry, and religion, are equally protected by the law.

French colonies and possessions in Asia, Africa, and America, are not included in the present constitution.

None of the powers instituted by the constitution have a right to change it in its form, or in its parts.

The constituting national assembly commits the deposit to the fidelity of the legislative body, of the King, and of the judges, to the vigilance of fathers of families, to wives and to mothers, to the attachment of young citizens, to the courage of all Frenchmen.

With respect to the laws made by the National assembly, which are not included in the act of constitution, and those anterior laws which it has not altered, they shall be observed, so long as they shall not be revoked or modified by the legislative power.

Signed by the members of the committee of constitution and revision.

#### REFLECTIONS ON THE FORMATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF RICHES.

BY THE LATE MR. TURCOT, SOME TIME INTENDANT OF THE FINANCES OF FRANCE.

(Continued from Page 127.)

§ 62. ANOTHER employment of capitals in advances towards undertakings of agriculture. Observations on the use, and indispensable profits of capitals in undertakings of agriculture.

In speaking first of the placing of capitals in manufacturing enterprizes, I had in view to adduce a more striking example of the necessity and effect of large advances, and of the courses of their circulation. But I have reversed the natural order, which seemed to require that I should rather begin speaking of enterprizes of agriculture, which also can neither be performed, nor extended, nor afford any profit, but by means of considerable advances. It is the proprietors of great capitals, who, in order to make them productive in undertakings of agriculture, lease lands, and pay to the owners large rents, taking on themselves the whole mass of advances. Their case must necessarily be the same as that of the undertakers of manufactures. Like them, they are obliged to make the first advances towards the undertaking, provide themselves with cattle, horses, utensils of husbandry, purchase the first seeds; like them, they must maintain and nourish their carters, reapers, threshers, servants, and labourers, of any denomination, that subsist only by their hands, that advance only their labour, and reap only their salaries. Like them, they ought to have not only their capital, I mean, all their prior and annual advances returned, but also a profit equal to the revenue they could have acquired with their capital, exclusive of any fatigue. 2d. The salary, and the price of their own trouble, of their risks, and their industry. 3dly. An emolument to enable them to replace the effects employed in their enterprize, and the loss by waste, cattle dying, and utensils wearing out, &c. all which ought to be first charged on the products of the earth. The overplus will serve to the cultivator to pay to the proprietor the permission he has given him to make use of his field in the accomplishing of his enterprize, namely, the price of the leasehold, the rent of the proprietor, the clear product, for all that the land produces, until reimburse-

ment of the advances and profits of every kind, to him that has made these advances, cannot be looked upon as a revenue, but only as a reimbursement of the expences of the cultivation, since if the cultivator should not obtain them, he would be loth to risk his wealth and trouble in cultivating the field of another.

§ 63. *The competition between the capitalists, undertakers of cultivation, fixes the current price of leaseholds, and the larger cultivations.*

The competition between rich undertakers of cultivation fixes the current price of leases in proportion to the fertility of the soil, and of the rate at which its productions are sold, always according to the calculation which farmers make both of their expenditures, and of the profits they ought to draw from their advances. They cannot give to the owners more than the overplus. But when the competition among them happens to be more animated, they render him the whole overplus, the proprietor leasing his land to him that offers the greatest rent.

§ 64. *The default of capitalists, undertakers, limits the manuring of lands to a certain cultivation.*

When, on the contrary, there are no rich men that possess capitals large enough to embark in enterprizes of agriculture, when, through the low rate of the productions of the earth, or any other cause, the crops are not sufficient to ensure to the undertakers, besides the reimbursement of their capital, emoluments adequate at least to those they would derive from their money by employing it in some other channel, there are no farmers that offer to lease lands, the proprietors are constrained to hire mercenaries or metayers, which are equally unable to make any advances, or duly to cultivate it. The proprietor himself makes moderate advances, which do not produce him an indifferent revenue: If the land happens to belong to an owner poor, negligent, and in debt, to a widow,

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REMAINS OF THE TEMPLE OF JUNO IN THE ISLAND OF SAMOS.

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or a minor, it remains unmanured; such is the principle of the difference I have observed between provinces, where the lands are cultivated by opulent farmers, as in Normandy and the Isle de France and those where they are cultivated only by indigent mercenaries, as in Limousin, Angoumois, Bourbonnois, and several others.

§ 65. Subdivision of the class of cultivators into undertakers, or farmers, and simple hired persons, servants, and day-labourers.

Hence it follows, that the class of cultivators may be divided, like that of manufacturers, into two branches, the one of undertakers or capitalists, who make the advances, the other of simple stipendiary workmen. It results also, that the capitals alone can form and support great enterprizes of agriculture, that give to the lands an unvariable value, if I may use the expression, that secure to the proprietors a revenue always equal, and the largest possible.

( To be continued. )

## SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE ISLAND OF SAMOS.

WITH A BEAUTIFUL VIEW.

SAMOS is an island of the Archipelago, on the coast of Natolia, and is bounded on the north by a gulph of the same name; on the south by the gulph of Ephesus, and on the east, by the island of Nicaria. It is about thirty-two miles in length, twenty-two in breadth, and is remarkably fertile. The inhabitants, though subject to the Turks, live pretty comfortably, as their taxation is moderate. Their dress is much the same as that of the Turks, except that they wear a red coif, and have their hair hanging down their backs, with plates of silver, or black-tin, fastened to the ends of it. The island produces abundance of melons, lentils, kidney-beans, and excellent Muscadine grapes. The people here cultivate a kind of white grape, four times as big as the common sort, but they are not so well tasted. Their silk is very fine, and their honey and wax admirable; wild-fowls, such as partridges, woodcocks, snipes, wood-pigeons, &c. are here found in great plenty, and the poultry are excellent. There are here also iron-mines and emery stone. The soil is of a rusty colour, and all the mountains are of white marble. The inhabitants are computed to be in number 12,000; they are principally Greeks, and the monks and priests occupy most part of the island.

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Samos, besides being the country of Pythagoras, is celebrated also in the heathen mythology as the birth place of Juno, who was born on the banks of the river *Imbrasus*, and under the shade of one of those trees called *Agnus Castus*. This valuable tree was long shewn in the temple of the goddess, as one of the first monuments in Greece. The statue of Juno, according to Pausanias, was the work of Similis, a sculptor of *Ægina*, and cotemporary with *Dedalus*. A more ancient author even pretends that it was at first only a log of wood, and that it was afterwards cut in the form of the human figure. However this may be, miraculous effects were ascribed to it. One of the most remarkable was its triumph over the *Tyrrhenians*, who attempted to carry it away; but these people were not able to fail until they had replaced it in its sanctuary. The *Perians* afterwards set fire to the temple of Juno, having first plundered it of the riches accumulated there by the piety of the people; but one much more magnificent than the former was soon erected, which was afterwards plundered by *Verres*. Of this temple nothing now remains, except one column half destroyed, the chapter of which the Turks have thrown down, by firing at it with their cannon.

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REVIEW

• Lib. VII.

## REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

## FOREIGN.

DISCOURS ET MEMOIRS; or, *Oration and Memoirs*. By the Author of the *History of Astronomy*. 2 vol. 8vo. Paris. 1790.

ANY work from the pen of Mr. Bailley naturally excites our attention. The first volume consists of what the French call *Eloges*, and although they are a species of composition which require great judgment, we cannot say we were disappointed.

The first of these *Eloges* is on Charles V. of France, and the French theatre, as the model which formed the taste of the nation, and was imitated by succeeding writers in every department of literature. When either Shakespeare or Corneille is the subject, critics are very apt to enter into a comparative view of their merits: in this, each nation generally accuses the writers of the other of partiality to their countryman; and the charge is seldom without foundation.

The subject of the third Discourse is *Moliere*. It contains many very just observations on the genius and writings of that excellent comic poet; but we cannot help thinking that M. Bailley sets too high a value on some of the minor plays of this author, which may be considered rather as farces than as comedies; and in which, perhaps, he consulted the taste of the populace, rather than his own.

We come next to an excellent eulogium on the Abbé De La Caille. The fifth is that of Leibnitz, in which the author gives a general view of the opinion and pursuits of that truly great man. The eulogium on Capt. Cook is the next in order, and is an elegant discourse. The last oration is on Gresset, who wrote some poems and comedies. Besides these articles, the first volume contains some of M.

Bailley's speeches, as mayor of Paris, and the discourse which he delivered on being admitted into that society.

We find in the second volume a letter to M. Le Roi, on the faculties of animals. M. Bailley thinks that some animals have not only memory, but also imagination; and even reason, although in an inferior degree to man. Mr. Bailley mentions some facts concerning the beaver and elephant, which shew these animals to be endued with something superior to instinct. An instance which he mentions of a monkey deserves peculiar attention. Some walnuts being placed within his sight, but beyond the reach of this animal, he, after several fruitless attempts to get at them, snatched a napkin from a servant, who happened to pass by him, and with this swept them forward till they were within his reach; his contrivance also to crack them, by letting a stone fall on them as they lay on the ground, indicated no small ingenuity. One day this contrivance failed of success, it had rained, and the ground being soft, the walnut sunk into it; but the sagacious monkey soon removed this obstacle, by laying a piece of tile under the nut. These circumstances shew such contrivance, and such a just adoption of the means to the end, as cannot be explained without allowing the animal to possess, at least in some degree, a faculty analogous to that which suggests, even to the most ignorant of mankind, the invention and application of mechanical powers, in order to effect that, for which their personal strength is insufficient.

This ingenious author appears very careful to obviate any suspicion of not making a sufficient distinction between the brute animals and man; and observes, that the former have memory, imagination, and some degree of invention,

vention, only when immediate circumstances compel them into action; whereas man has these faculties at all times, and can exert them at pleasure, even in the absence of those objects which excite his natural appetites.

The remaining articles of this volume have been published before, and are, "The Report of the Commissioners, charged with the Examination of Animal Magnetism; and the reports of the Committee appointed to examine the Plan of a new Hotel Dieu."

REIZE NA GUINEA EN DE CARABISCHE EILANDEN; or a *Voyage to Guinea, and the Caribbee Islands*; by P. E. Hertz, M. D. Physician to the Danish Settlements in Africa. 8vo. Dordt.

A GENTLEMAN of the medical profession is undoubtedly well qualified for travel, and for making observations on natural history and philosophy. Dr. Hertz has, in a series of twelve letters, given the world a pleasing and instructive account of his voyages. In the first letters he speaks of his sailing from Copenhagen, in the year 1783, for Africa, and of the transactions of his countrymen, in a war which then existed with the natives. This relation occupies the first four letters.

The fifth contains information concerning the country, the negro villages, and the produce of the soil. The Danes, when they concluded the above war, stipulated that they should be allowed to build a fort at a negro town called Quitta; the inhabitants of which place are wealthy in cattle, and has excellent water, procured in a singular manner. A pit, eight or ten feet deep, is dug in the sand on the shore, about 150 paces from the sea; this is soon filled with water, which oozes into it, and is perfectly clear and fresh for two or three days, but then becomes brackish. How this

process is performed our author could not discover.

In the sixth letter we have a variety of particulars relative to the trade on the Coast; and in the seventh an account of a voyage to Whydah, which he calls a fruitful country. In the eighth letter our author describes the manners of the negroes in the vicinity of Christianburg. An anecdote related of two negroes is well worthy attention.

One of them being involved in debts which he was unable to pay, acknowledged to his creditor that he had nothing left to satisfy his demand, except his own person, of which he might dispose as he thought fit; the latter took the poor fellow at his word, and sold him to the Danes. During his confinement at the fort, where he was shut up with other slaves, till a ship should sail for the West-Indies, his son formed the affectionate and noble resolution of delivering him from slavery. The parental tenderness of the old man, who chose rather to forfeit his own liberty, and endure the hardships of perpetual slavery than to sell his child, which by the laws of his country he might have done, prompted the latter to this heroic exertion of filial duty: he came to the fort, accompanied by some of his relations, and insisted on being accepted instead of his father: this was granted, and the scene which took place on their meeting was such as must have melted any heart, excepting that of a dealer in slaves: it was the contest of the noblest and most benevolent affections. The father, with grief and reluctance, accepted the freedom which was forced on him, and the generous youth surrendered his limbs to the chain with apparent pleasure. The benevolent author of the work before us, deeply affected with this interesting scene, represented it to the Danish governor, who generously advanced the money to pay the debt; on which the young man was released, and happiness was restored to this worthy family.

The ninth letter contains a history of the various settlements on the coast, the manners and customs of the people there, and the diseases to which they are liable. We are here told that the climate is not so unhealthy as it is generally represented. The tenth letter is a very interesting one. Our author paid a visit to a negro prince, E c inhabiting

inhabiting the mountains about thirty miles from the sea, and was received by him in a most friendly manner. Our author contradicts the report of the perfidy of these inland people, on the contrary, he says,

He observed that their character and disposition improved, in proportion as they were farther removed from the coast, and had less connection with the Europeans. The houses of these negroes were composed of stakes lined with clay; they are only one story high, but are divided into several apartments, which are kept very neat and clean. The country is beautifully diversified, and full of wood; some of the trees are of an amazing bulk; he found one the trunk of which was forty-five feet in circumference; but as it bore neither flowers nor fruit, and he could not procure any of its leaves, he could not ascertain its species. Palm-trees, which supply the inhabitants with oil and wine, are found here in great abundance. The mountains consist chiefly of granite and gneiss; though quartz and schist are also found in them; but the author did not discover any calcareous rock. The soil is a rich clay of various colours, intermixed with black mould; and it is so fertile, that agriculture does not employ above three or four weeks in a year. The air is much cooler than on the coast, and appears to be very salubrious. The chief vegetable food of the inhabitants is the fruit of the Pisango-tree, or *Musa Paradisiaca*, and yams, which are here much better than in the West-Indies. Their drink is the palm-wine, which they have two methods of procuring; one way is, to root up an old tree, which they imagine will grow no longer, and to bore a large hole in its stem, out of which the liquor runs into the pots placed to receive it. In this manner they obtain very little wine during the first four days; but in each of the eight or ten days following, the tree will yield from ten to fifteen quarts. The other method is, to cut off the head of the tree, and to make a longitudinal incision in the trunk; the wine procured in this way is of a better quality, but much less in quantity, than can be obtained in the former process.

A father of a family sends either his children or his slaves every morning to the woods, to fetch a quantity of this liquor, sufficient for the consumption of the day; the author, in his walks, frequently met these girls, carrying each a pot of palm-wine on her head. With a generous and frank simplicity, worthy of the golden age, they always pressed him to drink, and would kneel before him; that he might, with a reed, suck the liquor

out of the pot; nay, if several of them were together, they would contend for this honour, each asserting that her wine was sweeter and better than that of her companions. It has the appearance and taste of *Musk*, and when fresh, is very cooling and pleasant, but if kept above two days, it becomes acid and heady.

In the eleventh letter our author gives an account of his voyage to St. Cruz, in a slave-ship, on board of which an insurrection happened, and Dr. Hert nearly fell a victim to it. Our author justly reprobates this truly infamous trade. We have selected the following short account from what he says of the islands he touched at in the West Indies.

In the beginning of this century, the Danes purchased the island of St. Cruz from the French, to whom they paid one hundred and sixty thousand dollars for it. It is the chief of the Danish settlements in the West-Indies, and is said to contain three thousand white inhabitants, and twenty four thousand negroes and mulattoes. There are two towns, Christianstad and Fredericksstad; the one on the eastern, the other on the western side of the island: the former, which is the capital, is regularly built, and consists of several streets; most of the houses are of wood, covered with shingles; though there are some of brick, two stories high; the English and Dutch have their respective churches, as well as the Danes, and there is a large chapel for the Heraulters or Moravians. The harbour, which is small, and of which the entrance is very dangerous, without a good pilot, is defended by a small fort, with a garrison of a hundred and twenty men. The country is a plain, with a few little hills interperfed: these are left for wood and pasture land, and the remaining part of the island is devoted to the culture of sugar and cotton; for cocoa, coffee, and indigo do not thrive here, on account of the great droughts, as the more mountainous islands, which lie to windward, deprive this of rain. The sugar of St. Cruz is deemed much superior to that of the French colonies: the export of it is estimated to be, on an average, sixteen millions of pounds annually, exclusively of a considerable quantity smuggled to foreign countries: the yearly produce of cotton is supposed to be one thousand bales; this commodity is greatly improved since M. Van Rohn's travels in South America, where he collected above twenty different species; among these,

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that of Spanish Guiana, and another, with red leaves, are deemed the best kinds, with respect, both to fineness and colour. The sugar harvest in general begins in January, and ends in May; but, in some plantations, they make sugar the whole year round. The soil is chiefly a yellow or red clay, and, in some places, rich mould: it is, however, very stony, and in most parts of the island the soil rock is not more than two feet distant from the surface; for these reasons no plough can be used, and the trenching work must be performed by hand. This laborious business is the task of the wretched negroes, of whose cruel treatment by their barbarous drivers and managers the author gives an account that must inspire every humane reader with grief and indignation.

The twelfth letter contains a short account of the other Danish islands, and of the author's voyage to Guadeloupe and Martinico. On this passage he sailed in sight of Crab island, so called from the abundance of these animals which are there found. This is considerably larger than St. Cruz; but, from the jealousy of the European powers, is not yet cultivated. The Spaniards had formerly some plantations on it, but from an apprehension of their government that these planters might carry on a smuggling trade, they were compelled to leave the island, and were removed to Porto Rico.

The English settled there in 1718, but the Spaniards, who, like the dog in the manger, would neither reap the advantage of this country themselves, nor suffer others to derive any benefit from it, attacked these new settlers, murdered some, and carried others away with them to Porto Rico. Since this the English, the Danes, and the Spaniards, have made use of this island in common for the purposes of wooding, watering, and fishing.

The author tells us, that his countrymen flattered themselves with the hopes, that some treaty in their favour might take place between the courts of London and Madrid, in which case, many of the inhabitants of St. Cruz would remove, with their families and slaves, in order to form plantations in Crab Island, which is

remarkably fertile, and has plenty of excellent fresh water.

The island of Guadeloupe is supposed to contain about twelve thousand whites, and sixty thousand negroes and mulattoes. Basseterre, which is the capital, is regularly built, and has some handsome houses. Point à Pierre is also a neat town, and is remarkable for its harbour, which is said to be the best in the West Indies: it is large enough to afford shelter to a thousand vessels, and merchant ships can lie close to the quay on which the warehouses are built. Each of these towns had its theatre, or rather opera-house, the performers in which were maintained at the king's expence. The principal article of cultivation here is sugar; but it is of an inferior quality, which is ascribed to the moisture of the soil. There are some estates on which coffee and cotton are planted together. On this island is a volcano, which often throws up smoke, and in its vicinity a great variety of mineral productions are found. St. Pierre, in Martinico, where the author landed, is a town of considerable trade, very regularly built, the houses are mostly constructed of a grey pumice-stone, or lava, which is found on the strand; and the high-street is, according to Dr. Hest, above an English mile in length. It is supposed to contain nearly two thousand houses, and thirty thousand inhabitants, the Negroes included. From this town the doctor made an excursion to Piton, the highest mountain in the island, which he conjectures, for he had no barometer with him, is about twelve hundred toises above the level of the sea; it is of a conic form, and its sides make, with its base, an angle of about seventy degrees; but the summit is almost always invested with clouds, so that the surrounding country cannot be seen from it. On his return from this expedition, the author found his ankle very much swelled and inflamed; and, on examination, discovered that this was occasioned by a *dracunculus*, or *gordium medinensis*.

*medicinis*, which he gradually extracted; it was about five feet in length, and about the thickness of a straw: he imagines that he must have brought this from Guinea, and if so, he must have had it for eight months about him, before it produced any inconvenience.

In this island there are yet some Caribs, who live in the woods, with-

out having any intercourse with the Creoles and Negroes, and retain their old customs. The manner in which they celebrate their marriages is singular, and seems expressive of sorrow rather than of joy; they dance round the bridegroom with a dejected air, and to a melancholy song, which is more like a funeral dirge than an epithalamium.

## BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

TRAVELS THROUGH CYPRUS, SYRIA, AND PALESTINE; with a general History of the Levant. By the Abbè Mariti. 2 vol. 8vo. Robinsons.

THE translator of this work justly observes, in the preface, that "Cyprus, Syria, and Palestine have made such a conspicuous figure in the page of history, that an account of them must prove highly interesting to those who are fond of researches into the situation of remote nations." And it is with infinite pleasure we see sensible travellers giving to the public the result of their observations. The Abbè Mariti seems well qualified for this task. The first volume, to the review of which we shall now confine ourselves, contains a description of Cyprus. This island, known to the ancients by the names of *Acamantis*, *Ceraftis*, *Asphelia*, &c. and to the poets under that of *Cythera*, contained formerly nine kingdoms, tributary to Egypt. From them it fell to the Romans, and was taken from the Emperor *Heraclius* by the Arabs. *Isaac Comenius* governed it with the title of duke, but was deprived of it by our *Richard I.* sold afterwards to the *Knights Templars*, and from them it came under the dominion of the *Lusignans*; in 1480 was transferred to the *Venetians*; and in 1570, taken by the *Turks*, under whose tyranny it has since groaned.

We shall not enter into the geographical description of the island.

Religions are very much diversified in this island: the *Turks* never carried their tyranny so far as to attempt to render theirs universal. I wish to God that this moderation had always been adopted by sovereigns; it would have saved abundance of human blood, and would not have so often placed between the members of the same nation a greater distance than is to be found between people separated by immense seas, or inaccessible mountains. The greater part of the inhabitants are *Greek schismatics*. Besides a multitude of *Armenians*, there are here a great many *Maronites*, whose religious practices and ceremonies are not much different from those of the *Roman catholics*. The *Latins* are far from being so numerous; and consist only of *Europeans* and the brotherhood of *St. Francis*, known throughout the *Levant* under the name of the *Fathers of the Holy Land*: a name by which I shall always distinguish them in these memoirs.

The *Turks* here have a *mullah*, who is in some measure the chief of the law; the *Greeks* an archbishop, and three bishops; the *Armenians* a bishop; the *Maronites* a high priest; and the *Latins* two rectors, one for the *French*, and the other for the *Italians*. Religious toleration in this island is extended to all nations.

The revenues are abandoned to the *Grand Vizir*, who farms them to the highest bidder; we need not doubt, therefore, that the people are cruelly plundered. The following is the mode of taxation:

When new taxes are to be imposed, the governor does not address himself directly to the people, but to the *dragoman*; and the latter to the archbishop, who informs his diocese, in order to regulate the levying of them, and to prevent frauds and law-suits. From all these preliminaries, one might readily imagine that there

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would, at least, remain some resource to the people when oppressed; and that the seal of the archbishop would set bounds to tyranny, and oppose to insatiable avarice the remonstrances of patriotism and humanity. But here, as in many other countries, the protector of the people is only a vain image. He never raises up his voice with courage in favour of the oppressed; political meannesses, and fordid interest, soon make him the slave of delpotism; and this base hireling, by signing the oppressive register, authorises acts of violence, which secure his credit and his fortune.

The manners and customs of a people, form the most interesting objects. Of these we shall extract some particulars.

The Cypriots cultivate a plant, which they call chenna; when at its full growth, it is as tall and as big as the pomegranate tree, to which it has a great resemblance in its trunk and branches; its leaves are like those of the myrtle, and its flowers like a bunch of grapes in blossom. They are succeeded by a fruit of the size of a large coriander-seed; an oil is extracted from it, which has all the properties of balsam; it exhales a fetid smell, insupportable to the Europeans, but which, nevertheless, pleases the Orientals. The leaves of this plant, either dried or green, boiled in water, communicate a beautiful orange colour to cloth or stuff. The Cypriots use it for dying their hair, which, when once impregnated with this colour, retains it for a long time after. The Turkish, and a few of the Greek women, rub their nails and the palms of their hands with it, from an idea that it will render their skin whiter, and give a higher bloom to the carnation of their cheeks. In every country of the world one part of the women have endeavoured to add to the graces of nature, and the other to repair her faults: all the secrets, therefore, and cosmetics, invented by quackery, have been often put to the proof; but they have never yet been able to cure, in this respect, the insurmountable credulity of the sex.

The Venetians, when masters of this island, used to paint their horses; but this custom is preserved only in regard to white greyhounds and sheep.

They have in Cyprus a kind of serpent, the Greek name of which signifies the *deaf snake*; its bite is mortal; its body is about two feet in length, and an inch in diameter; its colour is black and yellow, and it has two small horns on its head. The Greeks have named it very improperly, for it is by no means deaf. It

generally frequents corn-fields; and the reapers, besides wearing buskins, fix small bells to their scythes, in order to frighten it away. This precaution would indeed be altogether useless, had nature deprived it of the organs of hearing. At the village of Tremitia, there is, it is said, a Greek family, in whom the virtue of curing the bite of this serpent is hereditary. I saw two people wounded apply to a relation of this family, who cured them merely by touching them. All those who despised this remedy became victims to their incredulity, and died some time after. It is very true, that all the virtue consists in a secret known only to these people; for, in touching the wound, they dexterously apply a certain powder, which causes a most acute pain, but it vanishes in a moment. The tarantula of Cyprus is a kind of spider, of a brown colour, inclining to black, and covered with long hair; its bite is not mortal; but it is, nevertheless, dangerous; and often occasions excruciating pain, accompanied with a fever.

Our author having given a general, proceeds to a particular account of the island, and describes the port of Salines, the ruins of Citium, the cities of Larnai, Nicaissa, Famagusta, and various other places. He then treats of the commerce of the island, of the consuls, and their duties, of the plague in that island in the year 1760, and of the wines of Cyprus, which last object occupies six chapters, and concludes the volume with the following extract:

Strabo, the geographer, describing the island of Cyprus, in the end of his relation passes a high encomium on its wines.

Pliny, the naturalist, reckons them amongst the most valuable wines of the earth.

The vineyards of Cyprus, says Gregory le Grand, are the most fertile of all those that I know; and their wines, in great request in commercial countries, are a certain source of riches to the island.

Aponius admires the size of the grapes, the abundant and delicate juice of which perfumes the mouth.

Two Capuchin monks, who have given us memoirs respecting the island of Cyprus, quote, as a proof of the ancient celebrity of these wines, the following verse, in the Song of Songs, which the spouse addresses to her well-beloved: *Botrus Cyprî, dilectus meus, mihi in vineis Engaddi*. These monks thought that the *botrus* was a kind of rare and exquisite grapes, transplanted from Cyprus to Engaddi;

gaddi; but it may be easily seen that these reverend fathers were mistaken. The *botrus* was always known to the natives as an odoniferous shrub, of which I have already spoken, under the names of the Kenna or Alkanna, of Copher and Cipre. If the word *botrus* signifies grapes in the Greek language, it alludes only to the flowers of the shrub, which have a great resemblance to a bunch of grapes. One is surprised to read, in a relation printed at Bologna, November the 11th, 1572, that Selim II. Emperor of the Turks, without respecting the *salim*, went to conquer Cyprus, in order that he might be master of its wines.

This prince had wasted his youth in the effeminacy and debauchery of the seraglio; and the laurels of his predecessors appeared in his eyes worthy of contempt rather than of envy, as being too dearly purchased by the fatigues and dangers of arms. A question, however, put to him by one of his women, changed in an instant this pacific disposition. Some excellent Cyprus wine, with which the favourite was not acquainted, being served up to them during a voluptuous repast, she found it so delicious, that she asked Selim from what place he had procured it, and whether the fortunate soil that produced it was contained within the vast extent of his empire. The Sultan, finding himself humbled on this question, suddenly quitted his new favourite; and having convoked his council, appointed Piali admiral of his galleys, and Mustapha generalissimo of his forces; and gave orders for all his troops to be assembled, and to hold themselves in readiness to receive his commands. "I propose," said he, "to conquer Cyprus; an island which contains a treasure that none but the king of kings ought to possess."

This expedition is described in a very interesting manner by Father Angelo, of the order of St. Dominic, and vicar-general of the Holy Land. He resided in Cyprus at the time when Nicosia was taken.

We are almost tempted to laugh when we find grave historians telling us, that Selim undertook this enterprize from motives of glory.

Another monk, called Stephen Lusignan, who was also a witness to the defeat of the Cypriots, confirms this fact which I have related. He says that the Ottomans, having in their researches discovered some wine eighty years old, sent it with great care to the seraglio, as the most valuable part of the booty. These wines were reserved for the sick; and, to give an idea of their quality, Father Stephen tells us that they kindled in the fire, and burnt like oil.

There is no longer any of these wines in Cyprus. The oldest that can be found are those preserved under ground, in earthen vessels; their age, in general, does not exceed twenty or twenty-five years; and I am of opinion that there would be none even so old, were it not for the custom which the Christians have of burying one of these vessels at the birth of each child, to be served up afterwards at their marriage. This wine, whatever may be the fate of the child, is never employed in commerce.

I am much astonished that the European merchants, who know all the qualities of this salutary liquor, do not attempt to bring some plants of the vine which produces it from Cyprus to Europe. I am well aware that the difference of climate may have prevented them; but I believe also that the care and industry of our cultivators would tend greatly to render this difference much less sensible.

Should these memoirs fall into the hands of any of them, I hope they may induce them to make the trial. Whoever does it will undoubtedly risk very little; and, in case of success, will enrich his country with a most profitable production.

THE HISTORY OF DERBY, FROM THE REMOTE AGES OF ANTIQUITY, TO THE YEAR 1791. By WILLIAM HUTTON, F. A. S. S. Nichols.

THE Antiquarians often furnish us with agreeable pieces of amusement, if we admit them to tell their story in their own way. Mr. Hutton, although we do not think he has a strong claim to the title of an historian, is a very agreeable storyteller, and we have followed him about Derby for a few hours with some degree of pleasure. The chief part of his work is taken up with a survey of the town. He describes the situation, soil, air, water, antiquities, public-buildings, institutions, trade, amusements, occurrences, eminent men, and the gentlemen's seats near Derby.

Of the antiquity of Derby he says,

All our historians agree in charging Derby with great antiquity, but there are no memoirs, or monuments, to ascertain the date, neither does tradition throw any light

upon its early existence. But there are many circumstantial evidences which tend to prove it a place of some magnitude in the time of the Britons. The situation is very inviting, upon a gentle ascent, in a flat, at the confluence of two valuable rivers, adapted for use and security, and exactly suited to the taste of our British ancestors. A passage over the Derwent was absolutely necessary in very early ages to connect the East and the Western banks. St. Mary's bridge therefore, in various forms, must have been that passage, because there are not the least vestiges of another in that part of the country, nor any roads with which another could connect, that at Little Chester excepted, the history of which is well known. It was a point with the Romans, in forming their famous military ways, to direct them by the British towns, but never through them. This was the case at Derby. The Ikenield-street, one of their grand roads, which I have described in another work, runs by Sutton-Coldfield, Litchfield, Burton, Derby, Chelsterfield, &c. which is a further proof of its great antiquity. At regular distances they erected castles, or stations, guarded by the Roman soldiers to preserve their dominion over the natives, and to prevent a connexion with them. At Derventio (Little-Chester) the Roman power is marked in visible characters. Over the Derwent, at this spot, they erected a bridge, not for the use of the Britons, but themselves; the foundations are yet seen in clear water; I have felt them with the oar. This ancient bridge indicates, that one more ancient must have been used at St. Mary's, perhaps many centuries prior to the Romans. The five churches are another proof of its great antiquity. Derby never was larger than at present, yet is overstocked with churches; it follows, it could not have been much smaller, or there would have been no need of five. It is ridiculous to build churches without inhabitants to use them. As these are of Saxon origin, the town appears to have been nearly as large a thousand years ago as now. From its slow growth, therefore, it must have taken many ages to arrive at its Saxon magnitude. As the increase was never rapid since the reach of history, we may fairly conclude, it never was before. I was present in 1738, at a conversation between two natives, when one challenged the other to produce an instance in Derby of a house being built upon a new foundation. The affirmative, I well remember, was not proved; which shews that a very small, or rather no increase attended it. I allow, the river being open, the silk trade multiplied, the roads improved, the china work established, &c. has given it an addition. Again, it is certainly one of the most ancient boroughs in the kingdom, which is

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another reason in favour of its being one of the most ancient towns. As there never was any staple commerce, or any incident that could augment the number of inhabitants, they must have proceeded in still life for ages, without much increase or diminution. Its early magnitude is further proved by Haldden's forces being quartered there during the winter of 874, which supposes it a town of size. Its being constituted the metropolis of the county in the reign of Alfred, proves it also to have been, in that early age, a place of consideration; and its not being central is a further proof, because a place so situated, of equal size, would have had the preference. The confined state of some of the principal streets, as Iron-gate, Sadler-gate, Market-head, is another proof of its antiquity. In that remote period, when they were first laid out, commerce was at a low ebb; the street was little used; never by carriages. A small space was sufficient for daily purpose; the scale of life was narrow compared to the present; as may that of the present compared to the future. Neither was the light obstructed as in our day, because the houses were low, none exceeding one story.

We must inform our reader, that Mr. Hutton affects a vein of humour throughout the whole work, and in some parts he is not scrupulously delicate; of this we shall give an instance.

If a reader should be so fond of antiquity as to merit the epithet of an *old castle hunter*; if, like me, he has waded up to the neck in furz, to see the Ikenield-street; treasured up the jaw of a monk because the ground had preserved it a few centuries, dined at the King's head in Fenchurch-street, out of a shattered dish, in which Queen Elizabeth breakfasted upon pork and peas, the morning she exchanged a prison for a throne; or hugged a broken chamber pot in which she—; if he has dived into the bowels of the earth to bring up a Roman coin not worth three-halfpence; or preserved the fragments of an earthen vessel, out of which his great grandfather eat milk porridge; he will not be displeased when I inform him, that he may find the vestiges of this castle in Mrs. Chamber's orchard, on the summit of the hill.

Speaking of St. Mary's bridge, he says,

There is no evil without its good; if the stranger travels with difficulty to the sum-

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mit of this bridge, he is well paid for his journey: the prospect is most charming; surprise and pleasure possess his mind; which, being engrossed by the view, passes unobserved. Above the bridge the river gently winds, and moves on in solemn majesty; below he is delighted with the expansion, the rustic island, the cascades, formed by the weirs, as if art meant to confine this vast mass of water, but it spurns the confinement with dignity, and, like man, rejoices in liberty. The garden of evergreens in the centre of the stream, the verdant meadows on the left, bounded by distant woods; the superb appearance of the silk-mills, All-Saints, and other capital buildings, terminated by a varied and extensive prospect, please his eye and engage his mind. He views, and would still view, but that he has a life to guard, in continual danger from the carriages, owing to the narrowness of the bridge.

About a century ago, this bridge demanding repairs, the mechanic head of Roger Morlege endeavoured to come at the foundation, by cutting a trench through the South end of the first clove leading to Chester, and also the Nottingham road, and directing the stream down a lane on the right into its own bed near the Holmes. To accomplish this airy, or rather watery project, he drove piles quite across the bed of the river, about two yards asunder, and twenty above the bridge. He then produced a wooden box, a yard-wide, as high as the depth of the water, and long as the width. This was to be placed in the front of the piles as a barricade to the stream. The cumbrous machine, to make it sink, and act as a complete dam, was filled with earth; but the fullen water, fond of its old course, crept through the crannies as fast as they could drain it out. As the pride of man cannot brook a conquest, the box was taken up, and Roger, like Noah, pitched it within and without. This was to insure success; but the river proved as obstinate as Roger, would submit to no controul, but, regardless of the little efforts of man, moved on with its wonted majesty; and the project was given up with reluctance. The piles, I believe, are yet standing: I have seen them in a clear and low water.

That the reader may have another specimen of our author's style of telling a story, we shall insert what he says of the jails.

Two of these prisons are jails; and two houses of correction; one of each for the use of the town, under the jurisdiction of the mayor; the other for the county, under that of the sheriff. If they excite that terror in the mind which is productive of innocence, they answer a valuable purpose.

A man whom I personally knew, rather defective in his intellects, played upon a rusty fiddle from house to house for a livelihood: but, as the law prohibits the use of the fiddle-stick on Sunday, he solicited charity at the church-door: the officer seized him, and shut him up in a garret, in the house of correction, joining the county hall. But he, like a true-born Englishman, impatient of confinement, attempted to jump out of the window; when, repenting one moment too late, he hung, for another moment, by a tile, when I saw both fall together into the County Hall-yard. Thus in ten minutes he found, and left, the prison empty. A crowd, full of compassion, instantly surrounded him, and blamed the officer for the seizure, who had certainly done no more than his duty; for a common beggar ought never to be suffered in the streets: if he is able to work, let him be constrained: if not, let the community support him. If the officer committed an error, it was in neglecting to bar his window; but he never suspected a man, who had lost his liberty without being criminal, would take a three story leap to recover it. The unhappy man received an injury in his back, and afterwards became crooked.

Exclusive of these two houses of correction for small offenders, there is what is called the *town prison*; this, as observed, was under the old town hall. After that was destroyed, a small erection was added to the county prison, at the Jail Brook, which bore that name. Here in 1731 I saw the jailor himself, John Greater, confined a prisoner for playing at foot-ball, a sport which the Mayor, Isaac Borrow, was determined to suppress. But the man, who had often confined others, could not brook confinement himself; he declared, in anger, "the prison should not hold him one night." He fulfilled his declaration: for he broke it, and fled before morning. This place of confinement is upon Nuns green.

It is an old remark, that "the present generation are wiser than the last;" this is verified in the chief prison or jail, at Derby. Our ancestors erected one in a river, exposed to damp and filth, as if they meant to drown the culprit before they hanged him. A worse situation could not have been chosen: it extended across the corn-market, one of the principal streets, or as if to hide the brook, or bind the flood. The wretched inhabitant was open to the public, and they to him. A vile arch admitted the horse passenger, and a vile the foot; inconvenient to both, hurtful to the stranger, dangerous to the inmate; a reflection upon the place, without one benefit as a counterbalance. But their wiser successors destroyed this ancient reproach, of some centuries standing, and

erected an elegant prison upon Nuns-green in 1756. Here the culprit enjoys light, air, and water, which ought never to be denied even the offender. The town has the credit of a handsome and suitable edifice; the Duke of Devonshire the pleasure of contributing £.400. towards the erection: and the traveller is delighted with the object.

Our author's principles of toleration we like, and shall give in his own words, with an instance of the effects of intolerance at Derby.

The man who has power, may oblige him who has none to act like him; but he cannot oblige him to think like him. Thought is free; action should follow thought. No man can be free, except his actions are his own; and while no injury arises from them, no power ought to controul them: hence appears the absurdity of punishing for religious conduct. Religion is allowed by all parties to be composed of meekness and love, but in all ages it has been supported by a spirit of blustering. That has ever been the trust which was the strongest. Power is the criterion of right. A powerful church is a powerful oppressor, and becomes a powerful state engine. No system can stand examination but that of perfect freedom, for, should the least infringement be allowed, the system falls. If a man's faith and practice be ever so absurd, they are his own, they are private property; to which he has the same right as to the coat he wears, or the air he breathes, for should a second person deprive him of these, because they are infamous, a third, for the same reason, may deprive the second: here then the fabric moulders, nor can it be erected upon another basis. The scriptures, as a rule of rectitude, never taught one man to take that which is the property of another. Errors in belief arise from the weakness of judgement: if we err in plain cases, it is no wonder we err in the mysterious. This weakness, being no fault, cannot merit punishment. In a recent conversation with my friend *Moses Solomon*, if a Jew can be the friend of a Christian, he delivered, what some would deem an absurd belief, "That the Rabbies of their church had still the power of working miracles; a power which must be attended with other powers equally great. That Constantinople contained 600,000 Jewish families! Amsterdam nearly as many! That the generations of men dwindled in size every age, and in time would be reduced to pygmies. That in the days of David they were ten yards high; and that Absalom, being a fine young fellow,

"was considerably taller. In those of "Moses, they were twenty: but that "Adam was so tall as to prevent the sun-beams from reaching the earth over his "head. That Christ was an impostor, "and had done irreparable mischief to "that religion which he ought to have "confirmed. That Dr. Priestley was culpable in attempting to convert the Israelites, and that he would never succeed:" which perhaps was the truest sentence he uttered. I assured him, that, however his sentiments differed from those of others, yet, as none were injured by them, none could claim a power over them, and instead of being repelled, he ought to be supported. Amazed, says the pious reader, would you allow such monstrous tenets? Yes.—Perhaps you would suffer the heathen to worship the sun? Certainly: he worships the Saviour of the world; so do you. And would you suffer the Mahometan absurdities to pass? I would: nay I go farther; I would support that religion whose former practice I am going to condemn.

In 1556, when the faggot was the barrier between truth and falsehood, a religious and harmless girl, of All Saints' parish, named Joan Walle, who was born blind, and assisted her father, a rope-maker, in his calling, was accused, by some officious neighbours, before that ignorant doctor, Ralph Barns, bishop of Litchfield and Coventry, of denying the real presence in the sacrament. The bigot attempted to persuade her into his faith; upon which terms he offered to secure her salvation. But not being able to convert her to his religion, he was determined to put a stop to her own, therefore condemned her to the flames, and consigned her to the bailiffs of Derby for execution.

This innocent victim to cruelty, aged 22, was, August 1, led to All Saints, like a criminal, preparatory to her suffering; and from the church conducted, in solemn procession, to Windmill-pit, near the turnpike, upon the Burton-road, about a mile from the church; in the centre of which she suffered the torture of fire with humble fortitude. It is matter of the utmost surprise, that the innocence of her life, her youth, her sex, and her misfortune, did not operate with her severe judges. Impressed with her melancholy fate, even in early childhood, I have examined the spot where she suffered: and, by the help of an infant imagination, believed I discovered the relics of the burnt faggots: which, like a random faith, founded in weakness, could be no more than the powerful operations of fancy.

We shall conclude our extracts with

our author's conclusion of his survey of the churches.

Thus, my dear reader, we have dived into the dark abodes of antiquity; if we have recovered as much hidden treasure as will pay you for reading, we shall both be satisfied; for I am amply paid in the pleasure derived from the research.

If we take a view of our progress, it will appear we have touched at six places, all sacred ground, set apart for holiness, famous for piety, expence, and miracle, and held in the highest veneration. But viewed in the present day, we may exclaim with Milton, "alas how changed!" St. Helen's is an orchard: the fruit of the monastery is changed into that of the apple-tree; and however the ground, in two hundred years, may have lost its sacred influence, yet this fruit is as finely flavoured as if under the consecrating prayers of the monk.

That spot where the assemblage of the fair composed a nunnery, where the practice of the life was not the wish of the heart; where the passions of the mind were suspended, and the designs of nature inverted, is now laid in silence, except the noise of the winds blowing above, and the beast cropping the grass below. The place is an open field, and plenty smiles where beauty wept.

Upon the resting-place of the Dominican friar stands the noble mansion of a rich banker; so that guineas rise where the monk was fed.

The spot over which the great St. James presided, was poor 600 years ago; it is poor still. Under the ground may be stone-coffins, and long bones; but above, are stables, poverty, and pigsties. The cloistered cypher of a man was less profitable than the brute.

The Abbey-barns, once the mournful scene of disease and complaint, was afterwards the joyful spot of my infant amusements. Doubtful of another house of lepers, I fly to St. Mary's, where munificence and devotion have given way to scolding and want; and the music of the vespers to the tumbling of the waters over the weirs.

**TRAVELS OF ANACHARSIS THE YOUNGER IN GREECE, DURING THE MIDDLE OF THE FOURTH CENTURY, BEFORE THE CHRISTIAN ÆRA.** *By the Abbé Barthélemi, Keeper of the Medals in the Cabinet of the King of France, and Member of the Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles*

*Lettres. Translated from the French. In Seven Volumes 8vo. and an eighth in quarto; containing Maps, Plans, Views, and Coins illustrative of the Geography and Antiquities of Ancient Greece.* Robinson, 1791.

AT length we may congratulate the public on the appearance of Anacharsis in an English translation; and, what is more to the purpose, we have to announce a translation well got up. Not hurried, lest some of the profession should supersede the undertakers in their plan, but conducted with care as to language, arrangement, letter-press, paper, &c. We are the more particular in mentioning these particulars; for some years past a very contrary practice has been too common, whenever a popular book of any kind has made its appearance on the continent.

The first volume is confined to the introduction. In this we have a short but interesting history of Greece, and Asia, as far as connected with it, from the first settlement of the colony of Cecrops to the age of Pericles. This is related in a pleasing manner. The fictions of fable are well incorporated with truth; and the whole, while it omits no interesting particular, is made to wear the air of probability, so as at once to inform the young reader, and impress the most important subjects on the mind. The manner in which the Trojan war is introduced, and the short account of the whole, is among the many passages we shall present to our readers.

On the coast of Asia, opposite to Greece, peaceably lived a prince, who enumerated only sovereigns among his ancestors, and was himself at the head of a numerous family, almost entirely composed of youthful heroes. Priam reigned at Troy; and his kingdom, as well from the opulence and the courage of his people, as from his connections with the kings of Assyria, displayed no less splendour over this quarter of Asia, than the kingdom of Mycenæ displayed in Greece.

The house of Argos, established in the latter city, acknowledged for its chief An-

memor

Memnon, son of Atreus. To his dominions he had added those of Corinth, of Sicyon, and several adjoining cities. His power, increased by that of his brother Menelaus, who had lately espoused Helen, heiress of the kingdom of Sparta, gave him a considerable influence in this part of Greece, which, from Pelops, his grandfather, had taken the name of Peloponnesus.

Tantalus, his great grandfather, first reigned in Lydia; and, contrary to the most sacred rights, had held in chains a Trojan prince, named Ganymede. Still more recently, Hercules, descended from the kings of Argos, had destroyed the city of Troy, put to death Laomedon, and carried off Hesione, his daughter.

The memory of these injuries, still unrevenge, perpetuated between the houses of Priam and Agamemnon an hereditary and implacable hatred, inflamed from day to day, by the rivalry of power, the most terrible of the destructive passions. Paris, the son of Priam, was destined to bring to maturity these latent seeds of dissention.

Paris passed into Greece, and repaired to the court of Menelaus, where the beauty of Helen attracted every eye. To the advantages of person, the Trojan prince united the desire of pleasing, and a happy combination of agreeable talents: these qualities, heightened by the hope of success, made such an impression on the queen of Sparta, that she abandoned all to follow him. The Atreidæ in vain strove to obtain, by conciliatory means, a satisfaction proportionate to the offence; Priam only saw in his son the avenger of the wrongs his house and all Asia had suffered from the Greeks, and rejected every accommodating proposal.

On this extraordinary news, those tumultuous and furious menaces, those rumours which are the forerunners of war and death, broke forth and were heard on all sides. The nations of Greece were agitated like a forest shaken by the tempest. The kings whose power was limited to a single city, and those whose authority extends over different tribes of people, alike inspired by the spirit of heroism, assembled at Mycenæ. They swore to obey Agamemnon as their chief in the expedition, to avenge Menelaus, and to reduce Ilium to ashes. Those princes who were at first unwilling to enter into the confederation, were soon hurried away by the persuasive eloquence of Nestor, king of Pylos; the artful harangues of Ulysses, king of Ithacæ; the example of Ajax, of Salamis; of Diomedes, of Argos; of Idomeneus, of Crete; of Achilles, son of Pelcus, who reigned over a district of Thessaly; and by a multitude of youthful warriors, already intoxicated with the success of which their sanguine ardour entertained no doubt.

After long preparations, the army, consisting of about one hundred thousand

men, collected together at the port of Aulis; and was conveyed by near twelve hundred sail of ships to the shores of Troas.

The city of Troy, defended by ramparts and towers, was still further protected by a numerous army, commanded by Hector, son of Priam; under whom served a number of allied princes, who had joined their forces to the Trojans. Assembled on the shore, they presented a formidable front to the army of the Greeks, who, after repulsing them, fortified themselves in a camp with the greatest part of their ships.

The two armies again made trial of their strength; and the doubtful success of several skirmishes evidently foretold that the siege must prove a work of time.

The Greeks with their frail vessels, and but little knowledge of the art of navigation were unable to preserve an uninterrupted communication between Greece and Asia. The army began to want subsistence. Part of the fleet was employed in ravaging, or in scouring the islands and adjacent coasts; whilst various parties, dispersed over the country, carried off the flocks and harvests. There was yet another season which rendered these detachments absolutely necessary. The city was not invested; and as the troops of Priam secured it against a sudden assault, it was determined to harrahs the allies of this prince; at once to profit by their spoils, and to deprive him of their succour. Achilles ravaged the country on all sides with fire and sword: after spreading universal havoc like a destructive torrent, he returned with an immense booty, which was divided among the army; and with innumerable slaves, which the chiefs distributed among themselves.

Troy was situated at the foot of Mount Ida, at some distance from the sea; the Grecian tents and ships occupied the shore, and the intermediate space was the theatre of courage and ferocity. The Trojans and the Greeks, armed with pikes, clubs, swords, arrows and javelins; covered with helmets, cuirasses, cuissars, and bucklers; their ranks close, and their generals at their head, advanced toward each other; the former with loud shouts, the latter observing a still more dreadful silence. In an instant the leaders, become soldiers, more emulous of giving great examples than prudent councils, rushed forward into the midst of danger, leaving it almost invariably to chance to bestow that victory they neither knew how to plan or to prosecute: the troops were thrown into confusion on the first shock, like the waves agitated by the winds in the straits of Eubœa. Night separated the combatants; the city on the one side, or the camp on the other, served as an asylum for the vanquished: the victory was bloody, but was far from producing any effect.

On the following days, the flame of the funeral

funeral pile devoured the victims of a premature death, and their memory was honoured by tears and funeral games. The truce expired, and hostilities again commenced.

Often, in the hottest of the battle, a warrior, raising his voice, defied some chieftain of the enemy to single combat. The troops in silence beheld them sometimes hurl their javelins, and sometimes enormous stones. Frequently they closed sword in hand, and almost always mutually loaded each other with insult, to exasperate their fury. The hatred of the victor survived his triumph: if he could not mangle the body of his enemy, and deprive it of the rites of sepulture, he at least endeavoured to despoil him of his armour. But, at the same moment, the troops on each side advanced, either to snatch from him his prey, or to enable him to secure it; and thus the action became general.

It became so likewise when either of the armies was alarmed for the life of its champion, or when he himself sought safety in flight. Circumstances might justify this latter conduct; but insult and contempt for ever stigmatized the man who fled without a struggle, since he only deserves to live who is at all times ready to brave death. Indulgence, nevertheless, was extended to him who did not retire before the superiority of his antagonist, till he had experienced his prowess: for the valour of those times consulting less in intrepidity of mind than the consciousness of strength, it was no disgrace to fly when vanquished only by necessity; but great glory was annexed to the overtaking an enemy in his retreat, and uniting to the strength that prepared the victory, the swiftness which effected its decision.

Associations in arms and sentiments between two warriors never were so common as during the siege of Troy. Achilles and Patroclus, Ajax and Teucer, Diomedes and Sthenelus, Idomeneus and Merion, and a multitude of other heroes worthy to follow their steps, frequently fought by the side of each other, and throwing themselves into the thickest of the battle, shared at once the danger and the glory. At other times, mounted on the same car, one guided the coursers, whilst the other repelled death, and drove him back upon the enemy. The death of a warrior required a speedy vengeance on the part of his companion: blood demanded blood.

This idea, powerfully impressed on their minds, steelled the Greeks and Trojans against the numberless calamities they endured. The former had more than once been on the point of taking the city; more than once had the latter forced the camp, in despite of the palisades, the ditches and walls by which it was defended.

Both armies sensibly diminished, and the most illustrious warriors on each side successively fell. Hector, Sarpedon, Ajax, Achilles himself, had already bitten the dust. Such changes of fortune induced the Trojans to wish that Helen might be restored; while the Greeks sighed to revisit their native country: both however were withheld from any accommodation, by shame, and that unhappy propensity which men have to habituate themselves to every thing, except what may ensure their tranquility and happiness.

The eyes of all nations were fixed on the plains of Troy, on those scenes to which glory loudly summoned the princes who had taken no part at the beginning of the war. Impatient to signalize themselves on a theatre open to the whole world, they arrived successively to unite their troops to those of their allies, and sometimes fell in a maiden combat.

At length, after ten years of resistance and painful labour, after having lost the flower of her youth and of her heroes, Troy fell beneath the power of her enemies; and her fall so resounded through all Greece, that it still serves as a principal epocha in the annals of nations. Her walls were levelled with the dust, her houses, her temples reduced to ashes. Priam expiring at the foot of the altar, his sons weltering in their blood around him; Hecuba his queen, Cassandra his daughter, Andromache the widow of Hector, and numerous other princesses, loaded with chains, and dragged like slaves through the streets, streaming with human blood, and filled with the bodies of a wretched multitude, devoured by the flames, or slaughtered by the avenging sword; such was the catastrophe of this fatal war. The Greeks satiated their inexorable fury; but this cruel pleasure was the end of their prosperity, and the commencement of their calamities.

The author continues his account of the return home of the Greeks, the various calamities they suffered, which he briefly carries on to the time of the Heraclidæ, whose usurpation and reign are better described than could be expected from such imperfect materials. After closing the account of the heroic age, he briefly recapitulates such of the events, or agents, as serve in a peculiar and striking manner to shew the character and spirit of the age. This is done with a sportiveness of language, and liveliness of description almost peculiar to the French, and which has suffered



suffered but little from the translation. The account of the poets succeeds, and Homer is treated with the respectful enthusiasm his extraordinary talents entitle him to.

The age of Solon succeeds, as the first in order after the heroic, and is called with much propriety the age of the laws; the next the age of Themistocles and Aristides, or the age of glory; the third that of Pericles, or the age of luxury and the arts.

Under the first we have a most interesting description, not only of Attica, but of all Greece.

The government of Athens is described with much exactness; the laws of Draco, the institutions of Solon, their subsequent alterations, and the effect all these produced on the manners of the citizens, are marked with philosophical precision. The character of Pisistratus is well described, as well as the follies and vices of his children who succeeded him. If we wanted a proof of the danger of trusting power to an individual, nothing can be stronger than what appears in this family. Pisistratus, by his prudence, moderation, love of virtue, and philosophical turn of mind, not only tempered the rigours of monarchy, but rendered the people so happy, that, by living still under the laws of Solon, they seemed to forget that royalty was no part of their constitution.—Happy had it been for them, and for the family of Pisistratus, if in his death he had shewn the same moderation as during life. But as if he governed only to enable his children to tyrannize, he seems not only to have secured them kingly power, but to have been inattentive to forming them after his own model. Perhaps it may be unfair to accuse Pisistratus of this; perhaps we are to look for the errors of Hippias and Hipparchus in the incapacity of human nature to support so exalted and dangerous a situation. We see indeed exceptions to this general rule; but Pisistratus is almost a solitary one. If we are told

that the kings of Sparta rarely abused their power, we should remember that they were only such in name, while the Pisistratidæ were really such without the name. This part of the work concludes with some account of the Lacedæmonians and Lycurgus, with a short comparison between him and Solon, as legislators, an account of the consequences of the destruction of the Pisistratidæ, and a few other particulars, which bring us to the next age, or the age of glory.

This is introduced by a short description of the Persian empire, the magnitude of which is sufficiently shewn by a bare recital of its limits. The circumstances that gave rise to the first jealousies between the great king and the Greeks are pointed out; and the army raised for reducing the latter, well described.

It is with pain, says our author, that I prevail on myself to describe campaigns and battles; it should suffice to know, that wars originate in the ambition of princes, and terminate in the misery of nations: but the example of a people preferring death to servitude is too sublime, and too instructive, to be passed over in silence.

After introducing the subject, as we before mentioned, he proceeds:

On this intelligence, Darius gave the command of his forces to a Mede, named Datis, who had more experience than Mardonius, ordering him to destroy the cities of Athens and Eretria, and to bring him the inhabitants laden with chains.

The army presently assembled in one of the plains of Cilicia; whence it was transported by six hundred vessels into the island of Eubœa. The city of Eretria, after a vigorous defence of six days, was taken by the treachery of some citizens who had influence over the people. The temples were demolished, the inhabitants loaded with chains; and the fleet immediately making a descent upon the coast of Attica, landed near the village of Marathon, about one hundred and forty stadia from Athens, a hundred thousand infantry, and ten thousand cavalry: they encamped in a plain terminated toward the east by the sea, shut in by mountains on every other side, and about two hundred stadia in circumference.

In the mean time Athens was in the utmost

most consternation and dismay. She had implored the assistance of the other nations of Greece; but some had submitted to Darius, and others trembled at the very name of the Medes or Persians. The Lacedæmonians alone promised troops; but various obstacles did not allow them immediately to form a junction with those of Athens.

This city therefore could not rely on its own strength. And how should she, with a few soldiers hastily levied, dare to resist a power, which in the space of half a century had overthrown the greatest empires of the world? Though by the sacrifice of her most illustrious citizens, and her bravest warriors, she should obtain the honour of disputing, for some time, the victory, would she not soon see armies more formidable than the first, issue from the Asiatic coasts, and from the heart of Persia? The Greeks have irritated Darius; and, by adding insult to their offence, have left him no choice but vengeance, dishonour, or a pardon. Would the homage he requires involve an humiliating servitude? Do not the Grecian colonies established in his states retain their laws, their religious worship, and their possessions? Has she not after their revolt obliged them, by the wisest regulations, to unite among themselves, and to be happy in despite of their dissensions? And has not Mardonius himself recently established the democracy in the cities of Ionia?

These reflections, which induced the nations of Greece in general to declare in favour of the Persians, were counterbalanced, in the minds of the Athenians, by not less weighty apprehensions. The general of Darius with one hand held out the fetters with which he had orders to enchain them, and with the other presented them that Hippias, whose solicitations and intrigues had at length conducted the Persians into the plains of Marathon. They must resolve therefore to submit to the wretched indignity of being dragged like vile slaves to the feet of Darius, or to the still more dreadful fate of again groaning under the cruelties of a tyrant breathing nothing but vengeance. In this alternative scarcely did they deliberate, but resolved to perish at least in arms.

Happily at this moment there appeared three men, destined to give new energy to the state. These were Miltiades, Aristides, and Themistocles. Their characters will best display themselves in the narrative of their actions. Miltiades had long carried on war in Thrace, where he had acquired a splendid reputation; Aristides and Themistocles, younger than himself, had from their infancy manifested a rivalry, which would have been the ruin of the state, had they not sacrificed it, on all

emergent occasions, to the public welfare. A single stroke is sufficient to paint Aristides; he was the most just and most virtuous of the Athenians: but many are necessary to describe the talents, the resources, and the views of Themistocles; he loved his country, but he loved glory still more than his country.

The example and harangues of these three illustrious citizens kindled the flame of the noblest heroism in the minds of the Athenians. Levies were immediately made. Each of the ten tribes furnished a thousand foot soldiers, with a commander at their head. To complete this number it was necessary to enrol the slaves. No sooner were the troops assembled, than they marched out of the city into the plain of Marathon, where the inhabitants of Platæ in Bœtia sent them a reinforcement of a thousand infantry.

Scarcely were the two armies in sight of each other, before Miltiades proposed to attack the enemy. Aristides and several of the commanders warmly supported this measure: but the rest, terrified at the excessive disproportion of the armies, were desirous of waiting for the succours from Lacedæmon. Opinions being divided, they had recourse to that of the polemarch, or chief of the militia, who is consulted on such occasions, to put an end to the equality of suffrages. Miltiades addressed himself to him, with the ardour of a man deeply impressed with the importance of present circumstances: "Athena," said he to him, "is on the point of experiencing the greatest of vicissitudes. Ready to become the first power of Greece, or the theatre of the tyranny and fury of Hippias, from you alone, Callimachus, she now awaits her destiny. If we suffer the ardour of the troops to cool, they will shamefully bow beneath the Persian yoke; but if we lead them on to battle, the gods and victory will favour us. A word from your mouth must now precipitate your country into slavery, or preserve her liberty."

Callimachus gave his suffrage, and the battle was resolved. To ensure success, Aristides, and the other generals after his example, yielded to Miltiades the honour of the command which belonged to them in rotation: but, to secure them from every hazard, he preferred waiting for the day, which of right placed him at the head of the army.

(To be continued.)

A LETTER TO A MEMBER OF THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, containing Remarks on the Proceedings of that Legislative Body, Strictures on the political Doctrines of Mr. Burke and Mr. Paine, and a View of

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of the Progress of the British Constitution. Jordan.

EVERY remarkable transaction in the world of politics, is at least productive of one public inconvenience, by calling forth an incredible number of productions, that exhibit the mistakes of blundering ignorance, or the aspersions of genius contaminated by illiberality. A striking justification of this remark, has appeared in many of the publications upon the subject of the French Revolution; we therefore took up the present pamphlet, without expecting any gratification from its contents, but have been regaled by the most agreeable disappointment we ever experienced. Although the Revolution has not wanted an advocate in abilities equal to the chief of its opponents, and possessing a spirit of generous investigation and a manly candour, yet we have the pleasure to announce to our readers that these requisites are eminently conspicuous, and successfully employed in the work before us. The remarks made by the author on the measures of the National Assembly, are sensible, spirited, and elegant. Though in general a friend to their proceedings, he points out some errors, the

remedies for which particularly demand attention. In a review of ancient Governments and the system of democracy the author of this pamphlet discovers a vigorous and highly cultivated mind, and in a note upon the state of Sparta, he pronounces an opinion, the ingenuity and justice of which will be acknowledged by every man of letters, who is divested of classical prejudice. The observations on the flight of the King and Queen, and the refutation of Mr. Burke's tyrannic doctrines, deserve great encomium, while a judicious correction of Mr. Paine's intemperate zeal, and an accurate enquiry into the progress of our constitution, display the author as one who is able to separate licentiousness from liberty, and who has carefully studied the history of his country. This performance, though valuable, is small, we shall not therefore present our readers with any extracts. However, there is an indispensable duty to the author and the public, that we shall perform by pronouncing this little work to be as complete a specimen of purity, elegance, and sublimity of composition as ever yet appeared in the English language.

## P O E T R Y.

### A SKETCH

#### OF THE LATE

FRANCIS GROSE, Esq. F. A. S.

BY A FRIEND.

SINCE (thanks to Heav'n's high bounty)  
free,  
And blest with independency,  
I taste, from busy scenes remote,  
Sweet leisure in a peaceful cot;  
While other bards for int'rest chuse  
To prostitute their vernal muse,  
And offer incense, with design  
To please the great, at falsehood's shrine,  
Suppose for pastime I pourtray  
Some valued friend, in faithful lay.

GODS to my pen a theme supplies,  
With life and laughter in his eyes.  
VOL. VII.

Oh, how can I survey with pleasure,  
His breast and shoulders' ample measure,  
His dimpled chin, his rosy cheek,  
His skin from inward lining sleek!

When to my house he deigns to pass,  
Thro' miry ways, to take a glass,  
How gladly entering in I see  
His belly's vast rotundity!  
But, tho' so fat he beats the leaner  
In ease and bodily demeanor;—  
And in that mass of flesh so droll  
Resides a social, gen'rous soul.

Humble—and modest to excess,  
Not conscious of his worthiness,  
He's yet too proud to worship state,  
And haunt with courtly bend the great.  
He draws not for an idle word,  
Like modern duellists, his sword;

Q

But

But shews, upon a gross affront,  
The valour of a Bellamont.  
On comic themes, in grave disputes,  
His sense, the nicest palate suits;  
And more; he's with good-nature blest,  
Which gives to sense superior zest.

His age, if you are nice to know,  
Some two and forty years ago  
Euphrosyne upon his birth  
Smil'd gracious; and the god of mirth  
O'er bowls of nectar spoke his joy,  
And promis'd vigour to the boy.

With Horace, if in height compar'd,  
He somewhat overtops the bard;  
Like Virgil too, I must confess,  
He's rather negligent in dress;  
Restless, besides, he loves to roam,  
And, when he seems most fix'd at home,  
Grows quickly tir'd, and breaks his te-  
ther,

And scours away in spite of weather;  
Perhaps, by sudden start to France,  
Or else to Ireland takes a dance;  
Or schemes for Italy pursues,  
Or seeks in England other Views;  
And tho' still plump, and in good case,  
He sails or rides from place to place,  
So oft to various parts has been,  
So much of towns and manners seen,  
He yet with Learning keeps alliance,  
Far travell'd in the fields of Science;  
Knows more, I can't tell how, than those  
Who pore whole years on verse and prose,  
And, while thro' pond'rous works they  
toil,  
Turn pallid by the midnight oil.

He's judg'd, as artist, to inherit  
No small degree of Hogarth's spirit;  
Whether he draws from London air,  
The Cit, swift driving in his chair,  
O'eturn'd with precious furlöin's load,  
And frighted Madam in the road,  
While to their darling ville they haste,  
So fine in Asiatic taste;  
Or bastard sworn to simple loon,  
Or Sects that dance to Satan's tune.

Deep in Antiquity he's read,  
And tho' at College never bred,  
As much of things appears to know,  
As erst knew Leland, Hearne, or Stowe;  
Brings many a proof and shrewd con-  
jecture

Concerning Gothic architecture;  
Explains how by mechanic force  
Was thrown of old stone, man, or horse;  
Describes the kitchen, high and wide,  
That lusty Abbot's paunch supply'd  
Of ancient structures writes the fame,  
And on their ruins builds his name.

Oh late may, by the Fates' decree,  
My friend's metempsychosis be!

But, when the time of change shall come,  
And Atropos shall seal his doom,  
Round some old castle let him play,  
The brisk Ephemerou of a day;  
Then from the short-liv'd race escape,  
To please again in human shape!

### HORATIAN PHILOSOPHY.

BY DR. AIKIN.

FROM scenes of tumult, noise, and strife,  
And all the ills of public life;  
From waiting at the great man's gate,  
Amid the slaves that swell his state;  
From coxcomb poets, and their verses;  
From streets with chariots throng'd, and  
hearles:

From rattling spendthrifts, and their  
guests,

And dull buffoons, with scurvy jests;  
From Fashion's whims, and Folly's freaks;  
From shouts by day, and nightly shrieks!  
O let me make a quick retreat,  
And seek in haste my country seat;  
In silent shades forgotten lie,  
And learn to live, before I die!

There, on the verdant turf reclin'd,  
By Wisdom's rules compose my mind;  
My passions still, correct my heart,  
And meliorate my better part:  
Quit idle hope, and fond desire,  
And cease to gaze where fools admire:  
With scorn, the crowd profane, behold,  
Enslav'd by sordid thirst of gold,  
Nor deign to bend at such a shrine,  
While Priest of Phœbus and the Nine,  
Nor would I thum the student's toil,  
But feed my lamp with Grecian oil.

Sometimes thro' Stoic walk sublime,  
Up the rough steep of Virtue climb;  
From philotophic heights look down,  
Nor heed if Fortune smile or frown:  
In Wisdom's mantle closely furl'd,  
Defy the tempests of the world;

And, scorning all that's not our own,  
Place every good in mind alone.  
Then, sliding to an easier plan,  
Put off the god to be the man;  
Resolv'd the offer'd sweets to prove,  
Of social bowls, gay sports and love;  
Give sroward life its childish toy,  
Nor blush to feel and to enjoy.

Yet ever, as by humour led,  
Each path of life in turn I tread,  
Still to my first great maxim true,  
On Moderation fix my view;  
Let her with tempering sway preside  
O'er Pleasure's cup and Learning's pride;  
And by her sage decrees o'er-rule  
The dogma of each sturdy school.

Opinion thus may various play,  
While Reason shines with steady ray,  
And casts o'er all the shifting scene  
Her sober hue, and light serene.

## THE

## MISERIES OF WAR.

BY A YOUNG GENTLEMAN, AGED  
FOURTEEN.**HARK!** when the brazen clarions  
shrilly soundOn ev'ry side, while weapons glitter round,  
Fell desolation sweeps th' ensanguin'd  
plain,And nought is seen but awful heaps of  
slain.Here broken armour, there a soldier lies,  
With not one tender friend to close his  
eyes:In his last hour, perhaps, he mourns a  
wife,Or children dearer to his heart than life,  
Who left behind, a prey to pining grief,  
Seek in the arms of death a kind relief.  
Here lies a son, a father, or a friend,  
By love of glory hurried to their end.Here the proud charger welters in his gore,  
Who breath'd in battles, but now breathes  
no more.There are thy horrors, War! O princes,  
say

Can ye e'er make amends for such a day?

Can ye a father's grief, or mother's fears,  
A sister's anguish, or an orphan's tears,Compensate fully? Can ye ever give  
A just reward to those who cease to live?What is a province newly gain'd to those  
In battle who a friend or father lose?See War's destructive progress quickly  
drainThe once well sown and cultivated plain;  
Dread carnage traces out each conqueror'sway,  
And some new horror waits on ev'ry day.Here from some town new sack'd the  
flames arise,While trembling females rend with shrieks  
the skies;Nor youth nor sex is spar'd—nor even age  
Can be secure from the fierce victor's rage:Here some distracted band appears in arms,  
Their country's danger ev'ry passion warms;Each soldier anxiously maintains the strife,  
And in th' unequal contest ends his life.Such are dread wars, the bane of ev'ry  
joy,Which the sweet peace of millions oft de-  
stroy.—O may that day arrive when all mankind  
shall be in one firm union closely join'd;When no ambitious prince, in search of  
fame,Shall write in fields of blood his warlike  
name;But all with one accord shall join t' adore  
The God who gave, and still is giving

more.

JUVENILE.

## SYMPATHY.

O! thou whose gentle and complacent  
pow'r,Can calm the lover's or the mourner's  
pain;Thou who can'st soothe the sadly silent  
hour,And modulate the lonely plaintive  
strain:O! quickly come, and with thy friendly  
care,The baneful troubles of mankind sur-  
vey:O! come, and all thy tender balms pre-  
pareTo cheer their woes with thy enliv'ning  
ray.Oft when reflection fills the busy mind,  
With mutual thoughts the panting breastinspire,  
As notes of concord, distant, yet con-  
join'd,In sweet vibration strike the different  
lyre!Thy falling tears the rudest woes divide,  
And seek to bear a portion of thygrief:  
'Tis thou that humblest Sorrow's big-  
swoln pride,And to the anguish'd heart afford'st  
relief.

## E P I T A P H

IN HALES-OWEN CHURCH-YARD,

*Written by Mr. Shenstone, but not printed in  
his Works.***HERE**, here she lies, a budding rose,  
Blasted before its bloom,Whose innocence did sweets disclose  
Beyond that flower's perfume.To those who for her death are griev'd,  
This consolation's giv'n;She's from the storms of life reliev'd  
To them more bright in heav'n.

## CHRISTIAN HOPE.

**WHAT** active pow'r is this within  
That soaring wou'd arise,In quest of never-ending bliss  
Above yon sparkling skies?'Tis Christian Hope, by Faith impell'd,  
Sustain'd by heav'nly grace,That animates my mournful soul,  
And shews its Saviour's face.

G g 2

Faith



Faith throws yon azure screen aside,  
And gives a glimpse of heav'n;  
Hope whispers to my anxious heart,  
"That ev'ry sin's forgiven."

Oh! can such mercy be bestow'd  
On wretches such as I?  
Yes, for our crimes the Son of God,  
Our Saviour Lord did die.

*Carshalton, Sept. 12.*

The sons of light for ever sing  
Our dear Redeemer's praise,  
And shall not we, for whom he bled,  
Loud heart-felt anthems raise?

Hosannah to the Christ of God!  
All glory to our King!  
Praise to his name! whose saving pow'r  
Our souls to heav'n shall bring.

*J. C.*

## THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

**T**HE theatre in the *Haymarket* closed a very profitable season on the 15th of September.

The theatre-royal in *Covent-Garden* opened on the Monday preceding that day, but has not as yet brought forth any thing new, except some young actors and actresses, humble candidates for the same; but we cannot compliment any of them with having much prospect to obtain it.

On account of the necessity of rebuilding *Drury Lane* theatre, the managers have contracted for the use of the New Theatre in the *Haymarket* for the ensuing season. From the prodigious size of this theatre, many doubts were entertained by the audience, whether the voices of the performers could be distinctly heard in every part. A first and second representation has completely removed that objection, and the audience find themselves removed to one of the most superb and elegant theatres in the world.

On account of the alterations necessary, the manager was not able to open until the 2d of September. This delay, and the representation of the magnificence of the house, had drawn together, before the doors were open, an immense concourse

of people; and, as from the hurry of a first night, the managers had omitted to inscribe on the walls proper directions to the various parts of the house, great confusion ensued. The house was, however, soon completely filled, and the managers may be able to ascertain what a full night will bring them, which, we are told, will exceed 6000.

On account of the great increase of expences, the managers have raised the prices of admission to the boxes and pit, viz. the former from 5s. to 6s. and the latter from 3s. to 3s. 6d. The first night some expressions of disapprobation to this measure were shewn, but the majority of the audience being pleased with their seats and accommodation, the opposition was soon silenced. However, the new Prelude, called *Poor Old Drury*, written by Mr. Cobb, was totally lost to the audience on that night. Their eyes were, however, highly gratified by the concluding scene, painted by Mr. Greenwood, which is one of the most elegant we ever saw. Of the theatre and this piece we are obliged to defer a further account until our next.

## PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

**I**N the House of Lords, on Monday, April 11, *Lord Porchester* made several motions relative to the war in India. His Lordship reprobated the treaties entered into between the East India Company, the Mahrattas, and the Nizam, for the destruction of *Tippoo Saib*, and justified that Prince's conduct in attacking the *Rajah of Travancore* for his unjustly possessing himself of the fortresses of *Granganore* and *Aycottah*. His Lordship concluded by moving three resolutions:

1. "That schemes of conquest, and extension of dominion, were measures repugnant to the wish, the honour, and the policy, of the nation.

2. "That the present war was unjust, and ought not to have been undertaken, though it might be attended with success.

And, 3. "That it was the duty of the Directors to send out orders to India, directing their servants to make peace on reasonable and moderate terms."

The *Lord Chancellor* having read the first motion, *Lord Rawdon* spoke in support of it; but objected to the second and third, considering them premature.

*Lord Grenville* defended the war; and, for the purpose of holding out encouragement to merit, he said he should, as soon as the Noble Lord's motions were disposed

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disposed of, move others, giving their Lordship's approbation to the conduct of Earl Cornwallis in his commencement of the war; to the same effect with those which had been moved and carried in another place [the House of Commons].

The Marquis of Lansdown, not considering the House to be in possession of documents sufficient to enter into a full discussion of the war, moved the previous question.

Lord Grenville, and other Noble Lords, opposed the previous question; and the motion being put, it was negatived by a division; Contents, 19; Not Contents, 9.

Lord Portchester's motions were then generally put, and negatived without a division.

Lord Grenville immediately moved three resolutions, similar to those moved by Mr. Dundas, in approbation of the war and the conduct of Earl Cornwallis.

Lord Loughborough moved the previous question upon these resolutions; and the House dividing, there were for the previous question, Contents, 18; Not Contents, 62. The resolutions were then put, and carried without a division.

In the Commons, the same day, ballotted for a Committee to enquire into the revenue and the expenditure of the country; and the following Members were chosen. viz. W. Hussey, esq. W. Pulteney, esq. Sir C. Bunbury, S. Thornton, esq. Hon. D. Ryder, D. P. Coke, esq. J. Sargent, esq. A. Stewart, esq. and M. Montagu, esq.

In the House of Commons, on Tuesday April 12, Mr. Grey rose to make his promised motion relative to the state of the nation. He contended, that the principles on which war could be maintained were only those which originated in the principle of self defence. He reprobated the latitude given to the construction of defensive treaties; and asserted, that if such latitude was given, the country might be eternally involved in wars, termed wars of expediency, but which might be, in reality, unjust wars, and wars ruinous to the country. He trusted, the House were not to be told, that the armament was for the support of Prussia. He agreed in the policy of maintaining the balance of power in Europe, but ridiculed as chimerical the hunting out of an enemy to contend for a port in the Black Sea, for the purpose of adding taxes to the country. He justified the claims of Russia upon Oczakow and the Niefter, for her boundary, as calculated alone for the purpose of defending her possessions from attack. He contended, that the war was neither politic nor just; and condemned, as unconstitutional, the implicit confidence called for by Ministers; and concluded by moving a string of motions; the first of which was, "That it

was at all times, and particularly under the present circumstances, the interest of this country to preserve peace."

Major Maitland seconded the motion. He felt himself impressed with the perilous situation of this country, and contended that no good reason for the proceeding had been, or could be, advanced.

Lord Belgrave contended, that from the general character of his Majesty's Ministers, and from the experience the House had had of their conduct, they highly merited the confidence necessary upon the present occasion; to prove which assertion, his Lordship shortly stated the conduct of his Majesty's Ministers in the affairs of Holland and Spain; and concluded by moving the previous question.

Mr. Pybus was strenuous in support of the conduct of Administration; asserted the policy of the country in checking the progress of the Russian arms, independent of the treaty with Prussia; and seconded the previous question.

A debate then began, which continued till two in the morning, when the House divided on the previous question: Ayes 252, Noes 172.

In the House of Lords on Friday, April 15, Mr. Baker said, he meant to bring under consideration what ought never to be forgotten in that House—their duty to enquire into the justice and necessity of all measures, to the support of which the money of their constituents was likely to be wanted. He then contended, that the war we were now about to be plunged into was a war not only unpopular within that House, as was evidently proved by the respectable and growing minority, but was a war reprobated by the majority of the country. It was his hope that gentlemen would exert themselves to compel the Minister to an explanation; and, until such an explanation was made, or until the project was abandoned, he entreated gentlemen to bring the business forward upon every occasion. He concluded by moving,

"That it is, at all times, the right and duty of this House, before they consent to lay any new burdens on their constituents, to enquire into the justice and necessity of the objects in the prosecution of which such burdens are to be incurred."

This motion, if successful, he meant to follow by another; viz. "That no information had been given to that House which could satisfy the House that the expences to be incurred by the present armament were necessary to support the interest of this country."

Mr. St. John seconded the motion.

Mr. Cux considered the great minority of that House to be a decided proof that the sense of the nation was against the war with

with Russia, and should support the motion.

Mr. *Carew*, considering the motions just submitted to the House to be merely an attempt to enforce the propositions before submitted, though in a different shape, he felt it to be his duty to move on them the previous question.

Mr. *John Elliott* seconded the previous question.

Mr. *Martin*, Lord *Fielding*, Sir *James St. Clair Erskine*, Mr. *Fox*, and others, supported the original motion.

Mr. *Yorke*, Sir *James Murray*, the *Chancellor of the Exchequer*, and others, were for the previous question, which was carried: Ayes 154. Noes 162.

In the House of Commons, on Monday, April 18, Sir *Gilbert Elliot* presented a petition from the General Assembly of the Kirk of Scotland, praying relief against certain clauses of the Test Act.

In a Committee on the Slave trade, Sir *William Dolben* in the chair,

Mr. *Wilberforce* opened the important business of its abolition. He reviewed the evidence before the house, commencing with that part which treats of the manner in which slaves were obtained from the continent of Africa. He quoted governor *Parry's* letter, who condemned the trade, as having been too long a disgrace to the country, and urged the necessity of its abolition. He said, from several proofs of the depredations made upon the coasts by the captains of the slave ships, he had not a doubt, could the house see the misery occasioned by this bloody trade, from the obtaining of the slaves to their carriage in the Middle Passage, and to their treatment in the islands, that there would be an unanimous vote for its abolition; and that the most strenuous defenders of the trade would abandon it in despair. He went at some length into the proof of the mortality it occasioned among our seamen; and, after endeavouring to prove that it would not be finally of any great loss to the nation at large, moved for a total abolition of the slave trade.

Col. *Tarleton*, Mr. *Grosvenor*, and Mr. *Burden*, were against the abolition; Mr. *Martin* and Mr. *Francis* were for the motion.

The *Chancellor of the Exchequer*, wishing to have the business amply discussed, proposed to adjourn the debate until to-morrow.

Mr. *Cawthorne* and Col. *Tarleton* objected to the adjournment of the question; but, finding it to be the sense of the house, acquiesced; and the house rose at half after eleven o'clock.

In the house of lords, on Tuesday, April 19, in the adjourned debate on the slave trade,

Sir *William Young* opposed the motion.

The house, he said, if they abandoned the trade by an abolition, would abandon it to other countries, which, instead of bettering the miseries we desired to remedy, would render them ten times more severe and aggravating. Upon those grounds he was determined to give his negative to unqualified abolition, though no man was more desirous to see the object of abolition obtained in a moderate way.

Lord *John Russell* considered the plan proposed to abolish the slave trade as visionary, chimerical, and dangerous; and that the general interests of humanity and liberty would not be advanced by abolishing it.

Mr. *Stanley* said, that he should not have ventured to speak upon a subject of so much importance, if he had not had some local knowledge of the West India islands by the experience of near thirty years; and if the cause of the planters and merchants, while it was attacked by the eloquence of the most able men in and out of that house, did not very much want the assistance of those, whose experience gave them some degree of competence to the subject. Mr. *Stanley* then spoke for a considerable time in defence of the trade, and supported his opinions by some copious quotations from the scripture, and from *Locke*, and other authors.

Mr. *W. Smith* defended the motion. He reprobated the arguments of the Hon. Gentleman, who had endeavoured to prove from Scripture that Christianity and Slavery were not incompatible. He then read several instances of the most atrocious cruelty in the captains of Slave ships, which excited, in a wonderful degree the merriment of some part of the house. He concluded, that the slave trade was as prejudicial to the interest of our West-India possessions as it was adverse to humanity.

Mr. *Cawthorne* opposed the motion, as did Col. *Phipps*.

The *Chancellor of the Exchequer* and Mr. *Fox* spoke long and animated for the motion; after which the House divided, for the abolition 88, against it 163. Adjourned at four o'clock.

In the house of Lords, on Wednesday, April 20, heard counsel further in the appeal from the court of Session in Scotland between *John Laird*, merchant, of Greenock, appellant, and Messrs. *Robertson and Co.* of the same place, respondents. Upon the motion of the Lord *Chancellor*, the interlocutor complained of was reversed, and the cause remitted to the court of Session, with instructions.

Adjourned to the 2d of May.

In the house of lords, on Wednesday, May 4, Lord *Grenville* moved, "that the report of the committee, appointed to search for precedents relating to the

"continuance

the continuance of the impeachment, should be taken into consideration on Monday next night; and that the house be summoned for that day."

In the commons, the same day, in a committee on the pilchard fishery, came to a resolution to grant an additional bounty of 1s. 6d. on every cask of 50 gallons.

In the house of lords, on Thursday, May 4, the Lord Chancellor came down to the house about three o'clock; and, after a long conference between his lordship and Lord Grenville, their lordships went into a committee of privileges.

In the consideration of the several petitions respecting the election of Scotch peers, counsel were heard in the case of Lord Moray.

In the commons, the same day, a new writ was ordered to be made out for the election of a member of parliament for the town of Lymington, in the county of Hants.

In the house of commons, on Friday May 5, Mr. Newnham presented a petition complaining of the Ludgerhall election. To be considered on the 15th of August.

The order of the day being read, for the house going into a committee upon the Quebec bill, Mr. Hobart in the chair,

Mr. Burke delivered his promised opinion upon the bill then before the committee. They were about to exercise the highest possible act of sovereignty, in the formation of a constitution for the government of a considerable body of men: in doing of which they ought to be well assured of their competence; and it was necessary to enquire where the right originated that we claimed to legislate for Canada. If the right of legislation, and of forming governments, was to be guided in this country upon the foundation of the rights of men, it would be an absolute usurpation. There was, however, another ground of right to form a government, namely, the laws of nations. Having obtained Canada by conquest, we had a right by the laws of nations to form a government for her, founded on justice, equity, and for the happiness of the people. We had the cession of the former sovereign, and the laws of prescription; and, on those grounds, he was convinced we had a right to make laws for Canada. Having established that right, it would be readily admitted, that we were bound to give them the best government they were capable of receiving, for the promotion of their internal happiness, and the external relation they had to this country. In doing this, some gentlemen might conceive it improper and unnecessary to resort to the experience of antiquity, but would give the preference of resort to the happiness of Paris, to the proceedings of London clubs, and to the Paris lanterns for illumination.

Neither would he resort to antiquity; but would take, as the examples on which he should argue, the constitution to be given to Canada, the example of the American, the French, and the British constitutions. The constitution of America was fit to be considered, on account of its being in the neighbourhood of Canada; and as we were bound by policy, to provide a constitution that would give the Canadians no reason to envy their neighbours. The American constitution was made as agreeable as the circumstances would admit to the British—the difference between their revolution and that of France would bear no comparison; the Americans had what was essentially necessary for freedom, they had the phlegm of the good temper of Englishmen—they were fitted for republicans by a republican education in the form of their government, maintained by a vigilant and beneficent monarch. Their revolution was not brought about by base and degenerate crimes; nor did they overturn a government for the purposes of anarchy, but they raised a republic as nearly representing the British government as it was possible—they did not run into the absurdity of France, and by seizing on the rights of men, declare that the nation was to govern the nation, and Prince Prettyman to govern Prince Prettyman. There was in Canada many of the ancient inhabitants; would it be proper to give them the French constitution? In his opinion, there was not a single circumstance that recommended the adoption of any part of it, for the whole of it was abominably bad—the production of folly, not wisdom—of vice, not virtue; it contained nothing but extremes, as distant from each other as the Poles—the parts were in eternal opposition to each other—it was founded on what was termed the rights of men; but, to his conviction, it was founded in the wrongs of men, and he then held in his hand an example of its effects on the French colonies—Domingo, Guadaloupe, and the other French islands, were rich, happy, and growing in strength and consequence, in spite of the three last distressing wars, before they heard of the new doctrine of the rights of men; but these rights had no sooner arrived at the islands than any spectator would have imagined that Pandora's box had been opened, and that hell had yawned out discord, murder, and every mischief, for anarchy, confusion, and bloodshed, raged every where, it was a general summons for

Black spirits, and white,  
Blue spirits, and grey,  
Mingle, mingle, mingle,  
You that mingle may.

When the Assembly heard of these disorders, they ordered troops to quell them:

bat

but it proved that the troops had joined the insurgents, and murdered their commander. He looked on the Revolution with horror and detestation; it was a Revolution of confumate folly, formed and maintained by every vice. The House had been told by a Right Hon. Gentleman (Mr. Fox) on a former day, that the Revolution was a *memento* of human integrity; but he would shew, before he sat down, from the last accounts from the National Assembly, what their proceedings had lately been in respect to their boasted *memento*. They had formerly declared it to be an eternal Constitution, never to be shaken; they had made the whole nation swear to it; and, when they had obtained every thing they appeared to wish, a king and no king—their sovereign a prisoner to the chief gaoler of Paris—they were not content; but, wishing to shew what a degraded thing a king might be, the chief gaoler, M. de la Fayette, allowed his nominal monarch a day rule from Paris, to make an Easter holiday—but against this the magistrates of the Municipality remonstrated, fearing an escape, though to him it appeared of very little consequence whether the unfortunate Louis was or was not among his people, unless it was for the purpose of insulting him, and of making him the channel of insult to every kingdom in Europe. The remonstrance, however, was not attended to, and the King, with his attendants, set out for St. Cloud in a coach, which was stopped by a grenadier with a presented bayonet, and a declaration that he (the King) should not proceed.

Here Mr. Baker said, that, great as his opinion was of the Right Hon. Gentleman's integrity, he must call him to order, as he was totally deviating from the order of the day, and going into a discussion on foreign governments.

Mr. Fox said, he believed the Right Hon. Gentleman looked upon this day as a day fixed for satirizing governments; he thought such discussions totally out of order, and wished to hear the business of the day.

Mr. Burke, with some warmth, observed, that the introduction of the French Constitution upon the discussion of the Quebec bill was at least as proper as the introduction of his (Mr. Fox's) declaration, during the consideration of the Russian treaty, of the French Constitution being a beautiful and stupendous fabric. The Right Hon. Gentleman was proceeding, when

Mr. Taylor rose to order, and insisted that the Right Hon. Gentleman was disorderly in proceeding to state the Constitution of France.

Mr. Burke insisted, that, when we were forming a Constitution, we had a right to discuss on any, so as to give the best. He conceived the present crisis to be a mo-

mentous one; and, whenever other Constitutions were applauded as preferable to the British, he would ever stand forward, and attempt to prevent our hunting after theoretical Constitutions. He hoped the people of England were married to their Constitution, and that they would never be separated from it. He knew that he was discharging his duty, in warning his country against impending danger; but could not comprehend what game those were playing who attempted to prevent the present discussion.

Mr. St. John rose to order.

Mr. Martin called Mr. St. John to order; for he was of opinion, that Mr. Burke was not disorderly, and sincerely hoped he would proceed. A Right Hon. Gentleman (Mr. Fox) declared, on a former day, that the public had a right to the opinions of public men; he therefore wished that the Right Hon. Gentleman might experience no farther interruption.

Mr. Burke felt it to be his duty to give no countenance to schemes, which he knew did exist, to overturn every fundamental principle of the Constitution. He knew it, and he charged it, that such machinations were in existence; and though they might not be immediately attempted, they might be, when brought to maturity, in other reigns, and at other times.

The cry of *order! order!* became general through the House, in which the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Martin, Mr. Orde, and Col. Phipps, spoke in support of the orderly proceedings of Mr. Burke. Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Grey, Mr. St. John, and Lord Sheffield, contended that he was disorderly; and

Lord Sheffield concluded by moving, "That dissertations on the French Constitution, and a narrative of the transactions in France, are not pertinent to the question before the House."

Mr. Fox seconded the motion.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer considered the introduction and discussion of the French Constitution to rest on discretion and order; and should give his negative to the motion.

Mr. Fox replied, and, in the course of his speech, lamented the present difference with his Right Hon. Friend the more deeply, because to him was owing the most of what he knew, and from him he learnt the principles of a free government. He was astonished at his present conduct, when he remembered the length of their friendship, when he recollected the length of time in which they had acted together on the same principles. He recollected when they both rejoiced in every victory of a Washington, and when they wept at the defeat of a Montgomery; he remembered that his Right Hon. Friend had taught him that a general revolt could not be

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be countenanced, that it could only be provoked. After a few more observations upon the conduct of Mr. Burke, he concluded for the motion.

Mr. Burke again asserted the Constitution to be in danger, and called for timely checks. When clubs of men are suffered to meet and correspond with the National Assembly; when regular anniversaries are permitted to commemorate such events as have happened in France; then the country is in danger: when such plots and conspiracies are going on; when seditious and rebellious sermons are delivered from pulpits; when the King's right to the throne is openly disputed; and when a bank of sedition is established in the heart of the country; the House ought to take fire and destroy them. He then concluded by moving an amendment to the motion, to omit the words after "dissertation," for the purpose of inserting "tending to shew that examples from the said Constitution of France, to prove it inefficient for every good purpose, and tending to anarchy, confusion, and the destruction of liberty and property, is applicable to the question before the Committee."

Mr. Fox rose extremely affected; he shed many tears, and with difficulty proceeded to declare, that, notwithstanding what had passed that day, he could not give up a friendship that had existed for 25 years. He replied to many parts of Mr. Burke's speech; and concluded by declaring, that, unless their mutual friends exerted themselves to restore to him and the Right Hon. Gentleman their former friendship, he should not think they acted affectionately to him.

The question of order was withdrawn, and the debate on the clauses adjourned to Wednesday next.

In the House of Lords, on Monday, May 9, Earl Fitzwilliam rose and observed, that it was now well understood that the present armament was very much disapproved of, more especially as the interest of the country was not by any means concerned in the rupture between Russia and the Porte. It was well known, by the papers that were laid before all the Courts of Europe, at what point the present armament was directed: this country was taking a very important step, which it should most maturely consider, previously to its so doing. The Noble Earl alluded to the notice that had been sent to the merchants concerned in the Russian trade, which of all others was the most extraordinary he had ever seen or heard of: it stated, that they might carry on the trade with security for a certain period; what could be more absurd or ridiculous? for it did not follow, that if Britain was to refrain from hostilities for a certain period,

that Russia would do so likewise; the present armament went directly to sacrifice our commerce to the wild, rash, and inconsiderate schemes of ministry, and tended to plunge this country into an expensive and calamitous war; he would, therefore, move that an humble address be presented to his Majesty, praying, that he might be graciously pleased to give directions, that the commerce which has so long subsisted between this country and Russia, might not, through any political motives of ministry, be hazarded or impeded by entering rashly into a war.

Lord Grenville said, the Noble Earl drew his information from very imperfect sources, the Custom-house entries; for the value of the different articles had not been altered since the time of Charles the First. He granted the trade was of very great importance, but Russia was considerably more interested in it than Britain; and for these reasons he would oppose the motion.

Lords Rawdon, Stormont, and Lansdown, supported the motion, which was opposed by Lords Hawkesbury and Mulgrave. On a division the motion was negatived by a majority of forty-seven.

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In the House of Commons, on Tuesday, May 10, Sir Gilbert Elliot moved, "That the Petition of the Assembly of the Kirk of Scotland be read;" which being done,

Sir Gilbert entered on the subject, to which he called the attention of the House. He complimented the Clergy of Scotland on their conduct in the prosecution of this object. He gave a brief account of the progress of that conduct—he disclaimed all party principles in coming forward on this occasion. He then entered historically into the Test Act, and the operation it had on the Members of the Kirk of Scotland in particular, avoiding designedly all discussion of the propriety of its continuance or repeal, as far as it respected England. He entered into general observations on grievances to Bodies of Men, and the propriety of redressing them, when it could be done agreeably to the safety and welfare of the State—he maintained that the object which he had in view came under that description, and therefore to grant the Motion with which he should conclude, would become a matter of justice and expediency. Here he entered into the spirit of the Act of Union, deducing from it a right to repeal the Test Act, as far as it regarded the Members of that kingdom. He maintained the policy of at least entering into an enquiry in that House on the subject, and illustrated that point with many arguments. He concluded with moving,

"That the House do immediately resolve itself into a Committee of the whole House, to consider how far the provisions

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of the Test Act, which require all persons, civil and military, to take the Sacrament, according to the Rites and Ceremonies of the Church of England, ought to be extended to persons born in that part of Great-Britain called Scotland."

*Mr. Pulteney* seconded the motion.

*The Lord Advocate of Scotland* opposed it as inexpedient, and not being the act of the People, but only of the Clergy of Scotland. He apprehended the motion infringing on the spirit of the Articles of Union.

*Mr. Dundas* felt himself under very unpleasant feelings, as he was bound to give his negative to the proposition moved by the Honourable Baronet. He opposed it chiefly on the ground, that had the terms now asked been insisted on at the time of the Union, the Articles would never have been agreed to, and he could not now ask for what was not then in contemplation—it would neither be generous nor just.

*Mr. Fox* said, he wished to have avoided giving his opinion upon this subject at present, as he might hereafter, perhaps, be called upon again to move for a general repeal of the Test Act, but he thought it his

duty to say a few words on the present occasion.

There were persons who were friends to establishments of Religion, to general religious liberty, and to religious toleration. He professed himself to be of that number. The Honourable Gentleman who had just spoken, had observed, that had the principle of this Motion been insisted on, the Articles of Union would never have been passed; this was admitting that the converse of the position was just; for if it was true, that an inquiry into the subject would have prevented the Union, then it followed, that it was not intended to operate on either

*Colonel M'cleod* considered the Test as a badge of slavery, that exposed every Scotch officer, who took it, to shame and dishonour, as it shewed that Scotland was not a free but a subdued country. He was surprised to hear any gentleman, who was a North-Briton, negative the motion, as the people of that kingdom must naturally say, that they were men more attached to Ministers, than to God or their country.

The House divided, when the numbers appeared: Ayes 62—Noes 149.

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

*Constantinople, July 8.*

THE plague is now spread to every part of this city. In the villages situated on the Canal, the mortality continues moderate; the Franc houses, are, however, shut up, as in times of the greatest calamity. The contagion continued at Smyrna on the 1st instant, and has broken out with violence at Adrianople, through which city it is important to observe, the new levies pass daily, on their march to the frontiers.

*Constantinople, July 14.* The plague continues here with little variation; but is much increased at Adrianople, and other places of Rometia.

*Madrid, August 1.* The revolt which took place in the kingdom of Morocco has been appeased, the King's half brother, after beholding the entire defeat of his troops, was obliged to retreat to a place of safety.

The new Dey of Algiers seems desirous of suspending the siege of Oran, and of terminating his differences with Spain by means of negotiation. This Dey remembers with gratitude the good treatment he experienced in Spain, where he was formerly a prisoner for nine years; and this is probably the cause of the pacific intentions which he has expressed. The Spaniards, however, in the interim, continue to defend themselves bravely, and lately blew up a mine, which destroyed a great number of Moors.

The treaty on the tapis between the King of Morocco and the Court of Spain meets with great difficulties, and remains unratified: though the Moorish Ambassador took leave of the King and Royal Family yesterday, he will not, it is supposed, return to Morocco, but will retire into one of the Southern Provinces of Spain, and live on a pension settled on him by our Court.

*Milan, August 5.* The French Revolution seems to have created a spirit over almost all of the Continent.—The populace, under the Duke of Modena, don't bear with such moderation the impositions they formerly bore; and in a quarrel they had lately with the Governor of Reggio, about a set of comedians, he was murdered coming from the Theatre, yet the Duke thought it better to let the furor die, than excite it further, by avenging his substitute's death.

At Geneva, the Democrats were grumbling at the Aristocracy, which they say is forming among them; and, in reality, whatever is the reputed account of their government, it is Aristocratic: there has been a great ferment among them, and it is not yet abated.

At Florence the populace rose to get rid of some of their taxes; the military were called forth, but the people are not yet quiet.

At Bologna the ferment works high—as fast as the Pope finds himself betrayed

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of income from other places, he taxes those which still acknowledge his jurisdiction; his Treasurer at Bologna, whose name is Nudi, has so enriched himself by gathering them at Bologna, that he has built a house much handsomer than any of the King of England's palaces; he has sent for porcelain from Saxony, of the most exquisite workmanship, to an immense amount; his plate exceeds in quantity that of any silver smith's shop in London. The people have just risen; he has fled to Rome, they intended to hang him; but as he had escaped they satisfied their vengeance by hanging him in effigy on the gate of the house of his particular friend.

*Vienna, August 6.* A Deputation arrived here some time ago from the States of Bohemia, to receive in form, from the hands of the Grand Chamberlain, the Royal ornaments necessary for the Coronation, which is to take place in the course of next month. This Deputation set off yesterday on their return to Prague, carrying with them, under an escort of cavalry, the Crown, Sceptre, Globe, Cloak, and other marks of the Sovereignty of Bohemia. They were accompanied by a brilliant train, who paraded through the streets of Vienna with great pomp.

*Vienna, August 12.* On the 4th of this month a peace was concluded at Sissovia between Austria and the Ottoman Porte, according to the *status quo* *fridus* agreed upon at the Convention of Reichenbach.

In consequence of this, the Emperor has consented to restore to the Porte every thing on the same footing as it was before the war. As to the other stipulations, they are to be regarded solely as amicable negotiations. In virtue of these, the House of Austria is to receive Old Orlova, without however being allowed to fortify that place; and the Czerna is henceforth to be the limits between the two empires. The free and unlimited navigation on the Black Sea and the Danube; divers commercial advantages in favour of the Austrian subjects, and an amnesty in behalf of those Christians who have retired during the horrors of war upon the territories of his Royal and Imperial Majesty, form the most essential Articles.

*Whitehall, August 16.* Ministerial notes have been delivered at St. Petersburg by Mr. Whitworth and Mr. Fawkener and Count Golts, on the part of his Majesty and of the King of Prussia, and by Count Osterman, on the part of the Empress of Russia, relative to the terms of pacification between Russia and the Porte.

In these notes the Ministers of his Majesty and the King of Prussia agree, on the part of their respective Sovereigns, that their Majesties will propose to the Porte to conclude a peace with Russia on the terms of the Cession of the District of

Oczakow, from the Bog to the Dniester; her Imperial Majesty engaging not to disturb the free navigation of the latter river, but to favour and protect it, (so which condition the Porte is to be equally and reciprocally bound): And her Imperial Majesty being also to restore to the Porte, at the conclusion of the peace, all other conquests whatever. The Minister of her Imperial Majesty agrees, on the part of his Sovereign, to make peace on these terms; and the Ministers of his Majesty and the King of Prussia agree, on the part of their respective Sovereigns, that, if the Porte should decline to enter into negotiation on this basis, their Majesties will leave the termination of the war to the course of those events to which it may lead.

#### COUNTRY NEWS.

*Reading, August 20.* At Henley last Monday night, between eight and nine o'clock, there was the most terrible storm of rain, hail, thunder, and lightning, that has been observed in that town during the memory of the oldest inhabitant. The hail stones were in general from two to three inches and a half round. At Fawley-court, the seat of Strickland Freeman, Esq. upwards of 2800 panes of glass were broke, and great damage done to the plants in the green-house. During the above storm, a villain got into the shop of Mr. Fellows, cutler, near the Market-place, in Henley, and stole several of his working tools, some razors, and many other articles.

*Extract of a Letter from Hertford, Aug. 15.*

"I must not omit mentioning to you the storm of last night. It exhibited a scene tremendous beyond example. It began early in the evening, and appeared at first to be impending over London, and to threaten its general destruction. Our family were exceedingly alarmed, and we contemplated the awful sight, with emotions not to be expressed, till two o'clock in the morning, when the storm seemed to abate.

"The horizon was illumined by almost incessant successions of flashes of lightning rendered still more awful by pillars of fire in all angles, and by balls of fire pointing to all directions. I am not of a timid disposition. I at first viewed this phenomenon with solemn delight; but at last my fortitude forsook me, and I really apprehended the most dreadful catastrophe. Our fears increased with the gradual approach of this extraordinary commotion of the elements, till we had relief from plentiful showers, and observed that the storm had passed over us harmless. I don't hear of any damages having been sustained in this town; but the feelings of all the inhabitants were tremblingly alive for our  
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neighbours and countrymen. I viewed the lightning through a cluster of trees, which produced a scene the most grand and picturesque I ever beheld. The thunder was not so terrible."

*Extract of a Letter from Abingdon, Aug. 21.*

"In some papers lately I have observed notice has been taken of some unusual productions of cattle.—Perhaps the following instances may attract the attention of some of your readers:

"Mr. John Flory, fisherman in the Abbey, in this town, is now in possession of a bull-calf about three weeks old, of proper size and proportion, that has no hair at all on any part of his body, head, or legs: it is quite black, and the head shines like the face of a negro. The persons most conversant in the breeding of cattle here are at a loss to account for this strange production, and most of them agree that the animal never will have any hair on any part of him. The cow that produced it was bought at Gloucester market about two months since, and is of the Welch breed, and black colour.

"Mr. Benjamin Badcock, of Frilford, has a young calf, with one of its fore feet cloven or parted in two places, and the other in three.—This, possibly, may be a circumstance that frequently occurs.

#### AMERICAN NEWS.

*New-York, June 13* The following is an extract of a Letter from Racoon-Creek, of a late date, to a gentleman in Virginia:

"We have met with a most severe stroke from the savages. A great number of our friends and connections are murdered, and their property carried off. We who are yet alive are crowded into small forts, uncomfortably lodged in wet and dirt, and there is not clear ground about the fort sufficient to raise bread for our children; for this reason many are moving to the old settlements over the Mountains; and several hundreds have it in contemplation, as soon as they can safely pass down the river, to move to the Spanish territory, where they will live in peace, and have their interest more attended to.

"When the general Government has displayed abilities sufficient to settle the grand objects of finance, and establish the credit of the United States, to the admiration of all nations, and to the universal approbation of the people of the United States, it is astonishing that they should have failed in that easy part of Government, the protection of the frontiers.

"The country is rendered desolate by taking the Government out of the hands of the people. The people of Kentucky defended the country and defended themselves against the British, joined by the

Canadians and Indians; now we are pestered with proclamations, which damp the spirit of the people. It would be well if those gentlemen who live 500 miles of out danger would consider that protection and allegiance are mutual."

#### EAST-INDIA INTELLIGENCE.

*Whitehall, Sept. 6.* The letters from the East Indies, of which the following are copies and extracts, were received on Sunday last by the *Hawke*, one of the company's ships.

*Extract of a letter from the President and Council at Fort St. George, in their Political Department, to the Court of Directors, dated April 14, 1791.*

OUR last communication respecting the grand army, advised your honourable court, that Lord Cornwallis had advanced as far as Vellore; and that he hoped to reach Bangalore on the 5th or 6th of March.

In pursuance of this intention the army moved, with all possible expedition, towards the Moglee Pass, and encamped on the Table land of Mysore, on the 21st of February, without any material difficulty, or the least interference on the part of the enemy.

Tippoo, in the mean time, remained near Ginghee, apparently waiting the motions of Lord Cornwallis; but he no sooner discovered their object, than he relinquished all hope of carrying on the war in the Carnatic, and hastened through the Chagamah Pass, for the preservation of his own dominions.

After halting two days, for the purpose of mustering the bullocks, &c. Lord Cornwallis marched forward in the direction of Bangalore. The forts of Molwagge, Golar, and Ouscottah, successively fell on the approach of our army. Forage and water were found in abundance on the line of march; and such was the confidence of the inhabitants, that they voluntarily supplied the camp with every article of provision.

In the morning of the 5th of March, the enemy appeared, for the first time, in force, a few miles on the left flank of the army. Parties of horse approached very near the line, and some horse were opened upon its rear, but at so considerable a distance, that they neither retarded the progress, nor did any material injury to the troops.

Lord Cornwallis encamped within sight of Bangalore in the evening of the 5th, and on the 7th in the morning the Pettah was carried by assault. It was a fortunate circumstance that a considerable quantity of dry forage was found in it, as Tippoo had destroyed all the villages around the fort, and the barren face of the country afforded an alarming prospect for the support of our cattle.

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The successful attack which had been made on the Pettah, and the happy consequences attending it, gave us the greatest satisfaction; but, at the same time, we sincerely lamented the loss sustained on that occasion, by the death of Lieutenant Colonel Moorhouse, whose military character was so much distinguished, and whose long, active, and zealous services to the company deserved the highest applause.

In order to testify our sense of such conspicuous merits, we came to the following resolutions, viz. "Government having received advice of the death of Lieutenant Colonel Moorhouse, who was killed in the assault of the Pettah of Bangalore, the 7th instant:—Resolved, as a testimony of respect to the memory of an officer who served the Company many years with distinguished zeal, spirit and ability, that his remains be, with the permission of the ministers and churchwardens, publicly interred in the church of Fort St. George, at the Company's expence, and a marble tablet fixed over his grave, with a suitable inscription, in commemoration of his merits:—Resolved, likewise, that a letter be written to Earl Cornwallis to inform him of this intention, and to request his Lordship will be pleased to direct, that the body of the late Lieutenant Colonel Moorhouse be removed to the Presidency, so soon as the situation of affairs will permit."

We are assured your Honourable court will be well pleased to find that proper respect has been paid to the memory of one of the best officers that ever served the Company; and we are confident this public testimony will be gratefully received by the whole army.

Since the assault of the Pettah no official advices of the siege have reached us from Lord Cornwallis, but by means of the public Tappats, dispatched from camp as opportunities offered, many private letters of undoubted authority have been received; and from these we learn, that the first batteries were opened against the fort on the 12th, and that the approaches were carried on with unremitting assiduity, and in the face of Tippoo's whole army; that on the 21st at night, about eleven o'clock, the storm began, and was crowned with the most complete and brilliant success. The garrison gave way on all sides; and though the loss of the enemy on this occasion was considerable, we have the satisfaction to observe, that ours is stated at a very small number. The miscarriage of Lord Cornwallis's official advice of the capture of Bangalore, will justify our transmitting a private copy of the general orders issued to the army a day after his success; and we beg leave to conclude this account by tendering our sincerest congratu-

lations to your honourable court on an event so glorious to your arms, and so important to your interests in this country.

We have been honoured with two letters from Lord Cornwallis since the fall of Bangalore, which we send as numbers in the packet. One dated the 27th of March, advising us, that as he had received information of the actual march of Rajah Tauge Want (the Nizam's General) with a considerable body of cavalry towards him, and being sensible of the great importance of securing the junction of this fort, and the probability that Tippoo would use every means in his power to harass and obstruct their march, he had determined to move to the northward, in the direction in which the Rajah was expected; and that he was farther induced to adopt this measure from the assurances which he had received that the friendly Poligars, in that part of the country, had collected a large quantity of grain, and a great number of cattle for the use of the army, within fifty miles of Bangalore.

His Lordship added, that he could not then form a precise judgment whether he should be able to attempt the reduction of Seringapatam before the rains, or whether he must limit his views to Ouslore, and an establishment in that part of the Myfore country; but that he could assure us that nothing but absolute necessity should make him abandon his former plan; that with a view to expedite the re-equipment of the heavy artillery, he had appointed Colonel Duff to command in Bangalore, into which place he had put the 7th regiment and three native battalions: that the quantity of military stores of all sorts found in it was astonishing; and that there was, in particular, more gunpowder than we could possibly have occasion for during the present war.

The second letter from Lord Cornwallis is dated the 2d instant, and advised us that he left his camp, to the southward of Bangalore, on the 28th ult. and on that day fell in with the rear of the enemy's line of march at Elevationum: that although our infantry could not come up in time to gain any material advantage, his Lordship pursued him closely for several miles, and obliged him to relinquish the object which he appeared to have in view, of getting between our army and the corps of the Nizam's cavalry: that Tippoo retired to Pedibalaborem, leaving behind him one brass nine-pounder; and that he had since moved towards Shevëganga.

Lord Cornwallis, in his letter, complains of the inactivity of Rajah Tauge Want, to whom he had written, that if he heard of any more delays and excuses he should proceed with his own troops to the execution of his future plan of operations.



The latter part of the letter is of so pleasing a nature, that we shall give it in his Lordship's own words: "We have been most plentifully supplied with forage since we left Bangalore, notwithstanding the attempts of the enemy to burn it, and this day some Banjarres of this country brought to camp above four thousand bullocks, half of them loaded with rice, and the other half with grain, doll, ghee, and other Buzar articles."

Lord Cornwallis having received a letter from Tippon, the 27th of March, making an overture for a separate accommodation with us, replied, "that he could encourage no proposition that did not include our allies." Copies of the letter and the answer having been transmitted to us, we forward them as numbers in the packet.

A large force having been left to the southward at the time General Meadows moved from Trichinopoly, Lord Cornwallis expressed to us his desire that it might be ordered to Amboor. Instructions were in consequence given to that effect, and we have the pleasure to add, that the detachment reached its place of destination on the 22d ultimo. By a letter from Lieutenant Colonel Oldham, who commands it, dated the 6th instant, we are advised that, in consequence of orders from Lord Cornwallis, he was to move from Amboor the next day, and to advance at the head of the Ghauts, where he was to take post until he should be further from his Lordship. This detachment, with the reinforcements from hence, consist of about 700 Europeans, 4,200 natives, and 450 cavalry.

General Abercromby, with the Bombay army, took possession of the Coorg Pass on the 27th of February. The advance, under Lieutenant Colonel Hartley, was strongly posted on the top, and the General was busily employed in sending up supplies; since that time (as we are informed by private advices) the second division of the 73d regiment, sent from hence on board your ship the Queen, and the 14th Carnatic battalion of native infantry, have joined and rendered General Abercromby's force very respectable. The Coorg Pass is about fifty miles from Seringapatam.

#### MARRIED.

Captain Paget Bayley, of the Royal Navy, brother to the Earl of Uxbridge, to Miss Colepeper, of Old Palace Yard.  
Earl of Darnley, to Miss Elizabeth Brownlow, daughter of the Right. Hon. William Brownlow.

Merry, Esq. to Miss Brunton, of Covent Garden Theatre.

Alexander Workwick, banker, of Lancaster, to Miss Greaves, of Preston, daughter of Thomas Greaves, Esq. banker at that place, and one of the Aldermen of Belfast borough.

Sir Richard Kaye, Bart. Dean of Lincoln, to Mrs. Mainwaring, widow of Thomas Mainwaring, Esq. and daughter of the late William Fenton, Esq. of Glashouse, near Leeds, Yorkshire.

The Hon. John Campbell, one of the Senators of the college of Justice, to Miss Lloyd, daughter of the late Hugh Lloyd, Esq. of Berth, in the county of Denbigh.

William Pagan, Esq. of the island of Dominica, to Miss Katharine Hart, daughter of the late Rev. John Hart. Minister of Kirkcubright.

Henry Charles Sirr, Esq. of the 6th regiment, to Miss D'Arcy, daughter of James D'Arcy, Esq. of Hyde-Park, county of Westmeath, Ireland.

Richard Edgeworth, of Dunleary Esq. to Miss Julia Butler, of Kildare-street, Dublin.

Hugh Barlow, Esq. member of parliament for the borough of Pembroke, to Miss Crespigny, eldest daughter of Philip Champion Crespigny, Esq.

Edward Sargeant, of Tower hill, to Miss Wilkinson, daughter of the late George Wilkinson, of Billiter-square.

J. T. Serres, Esq. painter to the Duke of Clarence, &c. to Miss Olivia Wilmot.

The Rev. G. Hodgkins, of Stoke Newington, to Miss Tutt, of the same place.

James Webb, Esq. of Wokingham, Berks, to Miss Ogbourn, of Guildford, Surrey.

Joshua Dornford, Esq. of Deptford-road, to Mrs. Elther Thompson, of the City-road.

Thomas Graham, Esq. of Lincoln's-inn, to Miss Davenport, daughter of the late John Davenport, Esq. of Clapham.

Rev. George Gordon, precentor of the cathedral church of Exeter, to Miss Tomlinson, of Lincoln.

Robert Thomas Crossfield, Esq. M. D. of Great Russell-street, to Miss Susannah Wood, of Perth, in Scotland.

Benjamin Sadler, wine-merchant, one of the sheriffs of Gloucester, to Miss Peyton.

The Rev. Thomas Ash, of St George's, Hanover-square, to Miss E. Wells, daughter of the Rev. Neville Wells, of Farley, Wilts.

#### DIED.

In her 75th year, Mrs Sarah Taylor, of Manchester, one of the people called Quakers, amongst whom she had been a preacher upwards of fifty years.

At Yarlinton in the 19th year of her age, after a lingering illness of more than sixteen months, Miss Mary Ann Jackson, second daughter of the Rev. Dr. Jackson, rector of that parish, and prebendary of Westminster.

M<sup>r</sup>. St. John Livre, of Founder's-court, Lothbury, Swiss merchant.

Charles Rols, Esq. of Craven-street.

At

At Trinity college, Dublin, the Rev. Digby Marsh, D. D. Senior Fellow of that college, professor of modern history, register of the university, and member of the Royal Irish Academy.

Mr. Arrow, carpenter to his Majesty.

Charles Deaves, Esq. fifty years secretary to the different Masters of the Rolls.

In Dublin, at a very advanced age, George Doyle, Esq. surgeon, and senior member of the Royal College of that faculty.

Michael Ferron, Esq. of Whistler's court, Cannon-street.

At South Mimms John Barwick Esq.

On his passage home in the Worcester Indian, Lieutenant Drummond, of the 15th regiment.

In the 22d year of her age, the lady of Joseph Smith, Esq. private secretary to Mr. Pitt.

Mrs. A. Thomas, of Bayvil, Pembroke-shire, at the advanced age of 105 years.—What renders it more extraordinary, she retained her faculties to the last moment of her existence. She knitted a pair of neat ribbed stockings with great judgment a few days before her dissolution.

Sir William Thomas Hanham, Bart. The title and estate devolve to his uncle, the Rev. James Hanham, now the Rev. Sir James Hanham, Bart. of the Clove, Salisbury.

Widow Blake, of Stratford under the Cattle, near Salisbury, aged 100 years.

On his passage from Jamaica, on board the Hope, Capt. Fuls, from Bristol, James Douglas, Esq. of that island.

The Rev. Sir Robert Preston, Bart. Minister of Cupar, in Fife, in the 86th year of his age, and 60th of his Ministry.

At Pocklington, in Yorkshire, in the 74th year of his age, the Rev. Robert Robinson, B. D. Senior Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Rector of Hartswell, in Yorkshire.

In the 88th year of his age, Jarrard Strickland, Esq.

At Cape Coast Castle, Mr. George L. Lucadou, of the Royal African Company's service.

In the 66th year of his age, Thomas Coare, Esq. of Reading, formerly of Newgate-street, wine and brandy-merchant, who had retired with a competent fortune.

At Bristol, Mrs. Jane Green, the celebrated actress, who for so many years distinguished herself by the powerful exertions of her comic talents on the stages of Drury-lane and Covent-garden.—Mrs. Green was the daughter of that eminent comedian Mr. Hippley, the predecessor of Shuter and Yates. She began her career on the stage of Goodman's-field's play-house about the time that the late Mr. Garrick commenced the profession of an

actor, which he carried to the highest pitch of excellence: She was married to Henry Green, Esq. who died some few years since, purser of the Namur, a 90 gun ship.

At Buscott, the Rev. R. Ready, Rector of that place, and of Palemore and Cadmore, in the County of Bucks.

The Hon. Isabella Scott, widow of the late Hon. John Scott, only brother to the present Earl of Deloraine.

In the 73d year of her age, Mrs. Elizabeth Whalley, relict of the late Rev. Robert Whalley, vicar, of the same place.

At Robertbridge, in Suffex, William Baker, a cordwainer, aged 89; he had worked 75 years at his business.

In consequence of a wound he received in the head from one of the rioters, Mr. Thomas Ashwin, of Paradise-row, Birmingham. He has left a wife and nine young children.

John Exley, Esq.

In his 67th year, James Leake, Esq. of Dedham, in Essex, formerly one of the patentees of Covent-Garden Theatre.

At the advanced age of 83, Mrs. Anna-Maria Nicholson, mother of the celebrated Margaret Nicholson, who, in a paroxysm of insanity, made an attempt upon the life of our beloved Sovereign. The old woman, in almost her last moments, bewailed the fate of her unhappy daughter; who was always her favourite child.

At his house in the Old Jewry, John Whitmore, Esq.

Fenton Griffiths, Esq. Captain in the Portsmouth division of marines.

At Great Mallow, in Ireland, the Right Hon. Dowager Baroness Massey.

At Worcester, Mr. J. Miller, Comedian, many years manager of the theatre of that city, and those of Shrewsbury and Wolverhampton.

At Peplow, in Worcestershire, Charles Pigot, Esq. aged 81, many years one of the Elder Brothers of the Trinity House.

Mr. Gideon Hewitt, one of the extra Messengers to his Majesty; his death was occasioned by his horse falling with him in Pall-mall.

# BANKRUPTS.

James Proffar, of Rofs, Herefordshire, mercer. William Shawcross and Matthew Shawcross, both of Brington, Cheshire, manufacturers. Thomas Rutledge Barker, now or late of Colchester, Essex, innholder. John Holmes, now or late of Bradford, Yorkshire, worsted manufacturer. William Crompton, now or late of Liverpool, Lancashire, haberdasher. James James, of the Borough of Truro, Cornwall, mercer. Deulberry Crawley, of Piccadilly, Middlesex, shopkeeper. John Wright and Peter Beavis, of the city of Bristol, linen-drappers and copartners.

# PRICE OF STOCKS IN AUGUST, AND SEPTEMBER, 1791.

Days	Bank 13 per Ct. Stock. reduc.	3 per Ct. Confol.	4 per Ct. Confol.	5 per Ct. Navy.	Long ditto. Ann.	Short ditto. Ann.	India Stock.	India Ann.	S. Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New 13 per Ct. Ann. 1751.	New Navy.	Exch. Bills.	Tontine.	Lettory-Tickets.
20	208	89	104	119	261	131	184	115 pr							161. 8s 6d
21	203	89	104	118	261	139-16	186	115		89					161. 8s 6d
22	203	89	103	116	265-16	137-16	184	115							161. 7s 6d
23	201	89	104	116	267-16	137-16	184	114		88	874				161. 8s
24	201	89	104	116	261	131	184	113		88					161. 8s
25	Shut	89	104	117	261	131	186	116							161. 7s
26	Shut	89	104	118	261	131	186	116							161. 8s
27	Shut	89	104	118	261	131	186	116							161. 8s 6d
28	Shut	89	104	118	261	131	186	116							161. 10s
29	Shut	89	104	118	261	131	186	116							161. 8s 6d
30	Shut	89	104	118	261	131	186	116							161. 8s 6d

## METEOROLOGICAL DIARY In LONDON, for September, 1791.

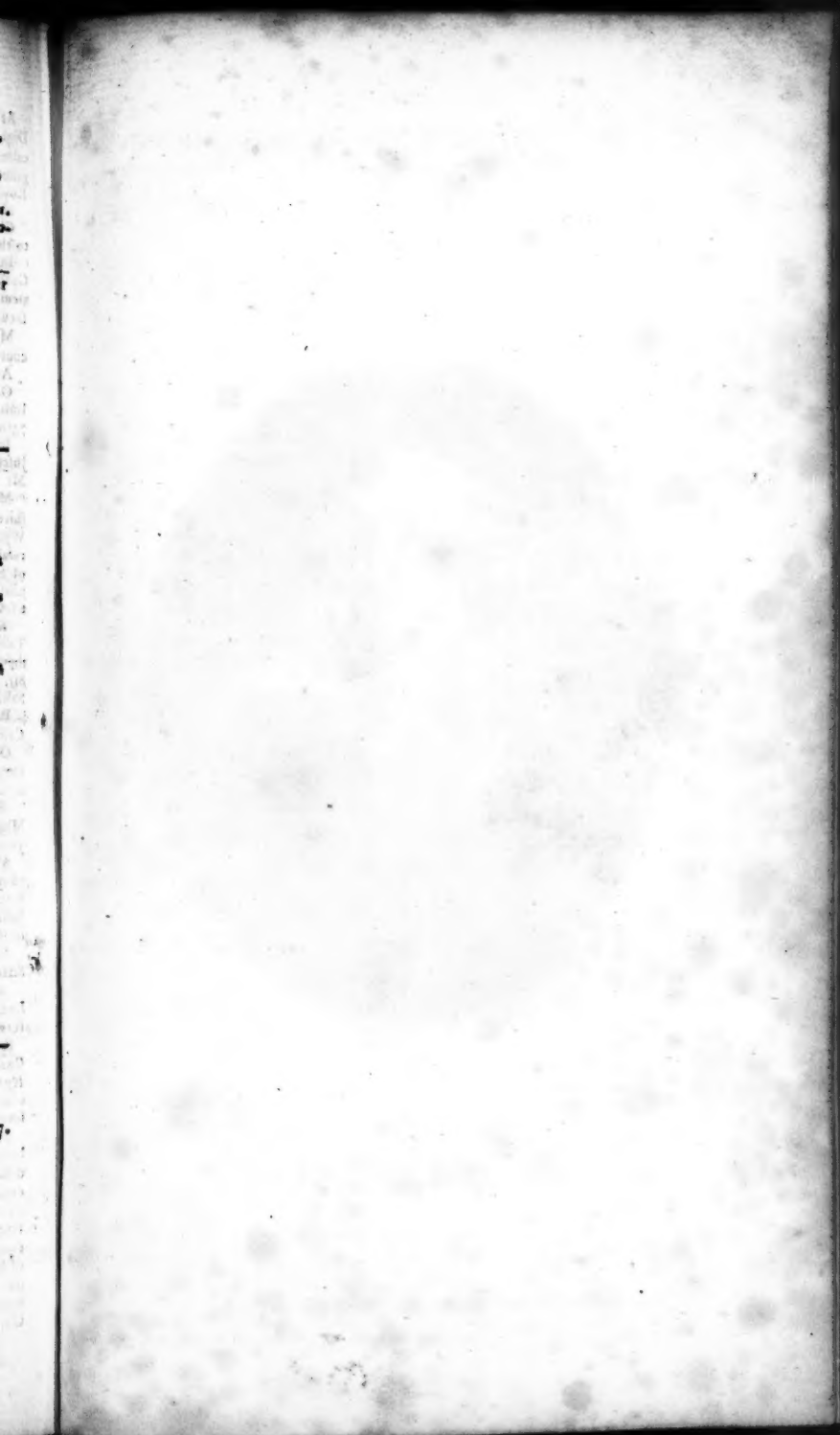
By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN.  
Height of the Barometer and Thermo-  
meter with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer Inches, and 100th Parts.		Thermome- ter. Fahrenheit's.		Weather in Sept. 1791.
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	
28	29 47	29 47	60	64	Rain
29	29 51	29 62	58	61	Fair
30	29 65	29 72	54	59	Cloudy
1	29 42	29 33	57	60	Rain
2	29 45	29 86	54	58	Fair
3	29 87	29 62	59	64	Showers
4	29 8	29 29	64	61	Rain
5	29 31	29 47	64	67	Showers
6	29 17	29 21	61	64	Fair
7	29 69	29 67	64	68	Cloudy
8	29 72	29 88	61	74	Ditto
9	29 91	29 90	64	68	Showers
10	29 88	29 79	64	68	Fair
11	29 78	29 82	65	69	Ditto
12	29 86	29 88	68	74	Ditto
13	29 88	29 87	58	74	Ditto
14	29 89	29 93	58	72	Ditto
15	29 98	29 98	58	74	Ditto
16	29 96	29 91	59	73	Ditto
17	29 00	29 85	58	70	Ditto
18	29 85	29 72	57	67	Cloudy
19	29 36	29 57	54	58	Ditto
20	29 70	29 79	49	58	Ditto
21	29 79	29 81	48	58	Ditto
22	29 81	29 79	46	58	Ditto
23	29 82	29 78	53	58	Fair
24	29 72	29 71	55	58	Ditto
25	29 79	29 89	53	58	Cloudy
26	29 94	29 90	53	58	Ditto
27	29 98	29 92	55	58	Fair
28	29 93	29 93	55	46	Cloudy

## PRICES of CORN,

From Sept. 5 to 10, to Sept. 10 to 17.

	s.	d.	s.	d.
Wheat	5	9	5	8
Rye	4	0	3	11
Barley	3	5	3	3
Oats	2	4	2	3
Beans	3	11	3	11



Literary Magazine.



SOAME JENYNS ESQ.

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